

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**The factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives:
Evidence from the semi-rural areas of eThekweni, KwaZulu-Natal**

By:

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School of Built Environment and Development Studies

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Supervisor: Dr Mvuselelo Ngcoya

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Declaration

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I, **Siphephelo Freedom Siyabonga Mdluli** (Student number **214579158**), declare that the dissertation titled: **The factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives: Evidence from the semi-rural areas of eThekweni, KwaZulu-Natal** is my original research.

1. This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
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Date: 22 NOVEMBER 2019

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my late parents, my dear mother Patience Nokubekezela Mdluli, and my father Jonathan Shezi.

Abstract

Co-operatives, as microeconomic community economic development (CED) strategies, have demonstrated to have the ability to create jobs and alleviate poverty. Agricultural co-operatives, in particular, stand a better chance of transforming the economic status quo by providing black rural small-scale farmers with an opportunity to participate in the mainstream agriculture economy. Co-operatives also contribute to community socio-economic development and the empowerment of vulnerable groups such as women and the youth. Hence, young people in rural and semi-rural areas have employed the co-operative strategy to sustain their livelihoods and improve their quality of life. However, agricultural co-operatives established by the youth often face internal and structural challenges, leading to their ultimate demise. This study aims to determine the factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives located in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni, KwaZulu-Natal. As in the rest of South Africa, the province of KwaZulu-Natal faces a socio-economic crisis of youth unemployment. The focus on youth participation is of particular importance as it allows the study to gain insight into how these impoverished and unemployed young black people deal with the adversities of the agricultural co-operative sector which is monopolised by elite white commercial farmers who control both the markets and arable land. By focusing on the youth, the study will be looking at the individual level of analysis, that is the choices and perceptions of young people who have formed agricultural co-operatives. To achieve this, the study has employed the capability approach as the main theoretical framework to be applied in analysing the co-operative members' participation. The research methodology employed by this study is qualitative, which is framed by the constructivist paradigm with a narrative approach. This study has employed a purposive sampling strategy to select information rich respondents. Ten (10) respondents from seven (7) agricultural co-operatives were interviewed. Data has been analysed thematically, and the themes that emerged from the coding procedure have informed the findings of this research. The study found that there were factors encouraging youth participation in agricultural co-operatives, such as having a passion for agriculture, working together, being unemployed, and the desire of being self-employed. While factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives included insecure land tenure, lack of infrastructure and equipment, lack of essential services such as water, access to information, markets. These emerging factors continue to affect the participation of young people in agricultural co-operatives; thus, affecting the development and sustainability of co-operatives.

Keywords: Agricultural co-operatives, youth participation; unemployment, agriculture.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACE	Area Cooperative Enterprise
AGM	Annual General Meeting
AU	African Union
CIPC	Companies Intellectual Properties Commission
DAFF	Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICA	International Cooperative Alliance
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
ITB	Ingonyama Trust Board
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OCB	Organisation of Brazilian Cooperatives
RDP	Reconstruction Development Programme
RPO	Rural Producer Organisation
SACCO	Savings and Credit Cooperative Organisation
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
TA	Traditional Authorities
UDL	Urban Development Line
VAT	Value Added Tax

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Dedication.....	v
Abstract.....	vi
Abbreviations and Acronyms	vii
Table of Contents.....	viii
List of Tables	xi
List of Figures	xi
List of Appendices:	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction.....	1
1.2. Study background	1
1.3. Statement of the problem	3
1.4. Study rationale	5
1.5. Objectives and research questions	6
1.5.1. Aim	6
1.5.2. Objectives	6
1.5.3. Research questions.....	7
1.6. Organisation of the study	7
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1. Introduction.....	8
2.2. Historical Emergence and Definition of the Co-operative Concept	8
2.3. Agricultural Co-operatives in a Global Context: China, France, Brazil.....	10
2.3.1. China	11
2.3.2. France.....	12
2.3.3. Brazil.....	15
2.4. Agricultural Co-operatives in Africa: Uganda, Tanzania, Kenya.....	16
2.4.1. Uganda	16
2.4.2. Tanzania.....	19
2.4.3. Kenya	21
2.5. Agricultural Co-operatives in South Africa – from Apartheid to Democracy.....	23

2.6. Agricultural co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal	25
2.7. Youth perspectives and participation in agricultural co-operatives in South Africa	27
2.8. Conclusion	29
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	30
3.1. Introduction.....	30
3.2. Conceptual Framework – Citizen Participation.....	30
3.3. Theoretical framework – Capability Approach	32
3.4. Conclusion	33
CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY	35
4.1. Introduction.....	35
4.2. Research Design.....	35
4.3. Location of the Study.....	37
4.4. Sampling	41
4.5. Data Collection	41
4.6. Data Analysis	44
4.7. Ethical Considerations	44
4.7.1 Credibility	45
4.7.2. Reliability.....	45
4.7.3. Confirmability.....	46
4.7.4. Transferability.....	46
4.7.5. Dependability.....	46
4.8. Methodological Challenges	47
4.9. Conclusion	47
CHAPTER 5: RESULTS.....	48
5.1. Introduction.....	48
5.2. Demographic Profile of Respondents	49
5.3. Youth understanding of co-operatives	50
5.3.1. Youth definition of co-operatives	50
5.3.2. Understanding of co-operative values and principles.....	51
5.3.3. Socio-economic benefits.....	52
5.4. Factors encouraging youth participation.....	53
5.4.1. Passion for agriculture	54

5.4.2. Being unemployed	55
5.4.3. Being self-employed	56
5.4.4. Working together	57
5.5. Factors hindering youth participation	58
5.5.1. Land tenure	58
5.5.2. Basic services.....	60
5.5.3. Infrastructure and equipment	62
5.5.4. Access to information	62
5.5.5. Access to funding.....	64
5.6. Support structures for agricultural co-operatives.....	65
5.6.1. Government support.....	66
5.6.2. Private sector support.....	67
5.6.3. Capacity building and training.....	68
5.6.4. Markets and selling	69
5.7. Co-operative growth and sustainability	71
5.7.1. Attracting youth into agriculture.....	71
5.7.2. Co-operative youth benefits.....	72
5.7.3. Employment creation	73
5.8. Conclusion	74
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	75
6.1. Introduction.....	75
6.2. Discussion of findings.....	75
6.2.1. Youth understanding of co-operatives	75
6.2.2. Factors encouraging youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.....	76
6.2.2. Factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives	78
6.2.3. Support structures for agricultural co-operatives.....	81
6.2.4. Co-operative growth and sustainability	84
6.3. Realisation of objectives	86
6.4. Conclusion	88
References.....	90

List of Tables:

Table 2.1: Cooperative Sectors in France - 2015.....	13
Table 4.1: Methods to collect evidence.....	42
Table 5.1: Themes and subthemes.....	47
Table 5.2: Demographic profile of participants.....	48

List of Figures:

Figure 2.1: Tripartite Cooperative Model of Uganda's Agricultural Co-operatives.....	18
Figure 2.2: Membership of Co-operatives in Provinces (2015)	24
Figure 3.1: Hart's Ladder of Young People's Participation	31
Figure 4.1: Map of eThekweni Municipality.....	39

List of Appendices:

Appendix A: Ethical clearance certificate.....	98
Appendix B: Gatekeepers letter.....	99
Appendix C: Consent form.....	100
Appendix D: Interview guide.....	101

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Youth unemployment in South Africa, and globally, poses serious socio-economic concerns that threaten the growth and sustainability of local economies. Policymakers always seek microeconomic strategies to revive local economies while absorbing unemployed youth who are the most vulnerable in the South African labour market. Co-operatives, as microeconomic strategies, have shown to have the ability to create jobs, alleviate poverty, while contributing to community economic development. Agricultural co-operatives, in particular, stand a better chance of transforming the economic status quo, since agriculture in South Africa continues to be the most significant job-creating sector in the economy, although these jobs are low paying. Meanwhile, the sector is primarily dominated by large-scale commercial farms that have failed to address unemployment and economic inequality, especially in rural areas. Agricultural co-operatives in South Africa have not been successful since the government utilises them a top-down approach to community economic development rather than a bottom-up approach where impoverished citizens employ them as livelihood strategies (Scoones 1998). This study seeks to understand why the youth participate in agricultural co-operatives by determining the factors that influence young people into participating in such macroeconomic strategies. This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the rationale of the study, as well as the research objectives and questions.

1.2. Study background

The co-operative movement in South Africa began with the emergence of predominantly white-owned agricultural co-operatives which were heavily subsidised by the Apartheid government through favourable legislation that supported co-operatives. Most of these co-operatives turned out to be large commercial businesses that dominated the agricultural sector, and controlled agricultural production, marketing and processing in the rural areas (DTI 2004). Black-owned agricultural co-operatives did exist during the apartheid era and were used by the then government as apartheid economic grand plans for the Bantustans/homelands. However, these black-owned co-operatives did not enjoy the same benefits as their white counterparts. As a result, black people in South Africa did not enjoy the privilege of participating in co-operatives as a means to improve their livelihoods. Unlike in many African countries during the same period, where many black-owned agricultural co-operatives were trading with the rest

of the world. Black South Africans were never genuinely exposed to the idea of co-operatives as a vehicle that could potentially lift their communities out of poverty and gradually bridge the economic inequality gap.

An interest in the revival of co-operatives as a programme for job creation and poverty reduction in South Africa was visible during the early 1990s when the National Union of Mineworkers assisted communities in establishing co-operatives. The co-operative movement in the country slowly became a direct response to the growing unemployment and opportunities that might arise from the land reform process post-1994 (Tshabalala 2013). Thus, the interest in co-operatives amongst the impoverished and unemployed people in South Africa is often a spontaneous response to unemployment and poverty. Several people who establish or join co-operatives are mostly marginalised from mainstream economic activities due to various socio-economic factors such as unemployment, lack of education and skills, historical geographic locations, and inherited generational poverty.

A particular measure to develop and support co-operatives as vehicles for employment creation in South Africa was embraced during the Presidential Growth and Development Summit, held in 2003 (Philip 2003). This summit laid the foundation for the development and eventual enactment of the Cooperatives Act of 2005, which was to be a fundamental legislative framework for the development and sustainability of the cooperative movement in South Africa. The new legislation saw the responsibilities of co-operatives being transferred from the Department of Agriculture to the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI). The DTI has promised to strengthen co-operative sustainability, through the provision of access to information, access to markets, business development support services, business infrastructure and institutional finance (Philip 2003; DTI 2012). The Cooperative Act of 2005 recognises various types of co-operatives in South Africa, including housing co-operatives, worker co-operatives, social co-operatives, agricultural co-operatives, consumer co-operatives, financial service co-operatives, housing co-operatives, and service co-operatives (RSA 2005).

Co-operatives in South Africa operate on the backdrop of historical and generational poverty, inequality and unemployment; all of which stem from the apartheid regime, which marginalised the majority black people from most forms of economic participation. In terms of poverty, approximately 66% of Black African youth and 44% of Coloured youth were living in poverty, compared to 16% of Indian youth and 4% of White youth (Stats SA 2017). The most vulnerable and impoverished group are Black African women, with a lower bound

poverty line (LBPL) percentage of 49% compared to Black African men at 45% LBPL (Stats SA 2017). These figures indicate that poverty and inequality in South Africa transcend beyond racial lines, as is the case between Black African men and women which reveal the intra-racial divides that exist in our society. Unemployment in South Africa is another socio-economic issue that affects young people the most. Currently, the youth aged between 16 to 35 has the highest concentration of unemployment as they account for 63% of the total number of unemployed persons in South Africa (Stats SA 2019). Young people in South Africa are faced with an unemployment dilemma, and some have turned to establishing and joining co-operatives to improve their quality of life.

Agricultural co-operatives have a long history of alleviating poverty and boosting employment opportunities across the globe. In Canada, the United States, and across Europe, agricultural co-operatives have enabled small-scale farmers to link up with export markets. In contrast, consumer co-operatives have provided good quality and well-paid employment as they were linked to the trade union movement (Birchall, 2003). Co-operatives, particularly in Africa, are also seen as mediating agencies of livelihood assets (Wanyama, Develtere and Pollet 2008). These livelihood assets or capitals include financial capital, natural capital, physical capital and social capital (Chambers and Conway 1992; Scoones 1998). Co-operatives can mediate and facilitate access to financial capital, and agricultural co-operatives can mediate access to physical and natural capital such as land and infrastructure. In contrast, consumer co-operatives can mediate access to household supplies for their members and the society at large (Wanyama, Develtere and Pollet 2008). Also, co-operatives are an essential part of the social dialogue that can result in giving informal economy workers a voice and a livelihood (Smith and Ross 2006).

1.3. Statement of the problem

Large-scale commercial farming has become ineffective in addressing unemployment and inequality in rural communities. Government has failed to close the gap in the dual agrarian economy, which is divided between large scale commercial white farmers and small-scale subsistence black farmers (Aliber and Cousins 2013). The government's vision of reforming the agrarian economy by replacing large scale farms with smallholder farms, as envisaged in the Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP), has taken a back seat in the agrarian question. Economic policies adopted after 1994 have done little to develop the smallholder sector and may have even led to the sector's decline (Lahiff and Cousins 2005). Meanwhile, 86% of the agricultural land in South Africa is concentrated in the hands of approximately

46,000 commercial and individual farmers, most of whom are predominantly white (Lahiff and Cousins 2005; Ortmann and King 2007b).

The development and ultimate sustainability of the agricultural co-operative movement in South Africa largely depend on the transformation of the agrarian economy to gradually replace large-scale farming with small-scale farming, and this can only be facilitated through an equitable land redistribution programme. Lahiff and Cousins (2005) state that the smallholder farming sector will require a rapid 30% to 50% redistribution of agricultural land from the large-scale sector to the small-scale sector. Also, reforms and the restructuring of the agriculture markets will be required to provide access to new entrants operating on a small scale and serving local markets (Lahiff and Cousins 2005). Such reforms would open up the agrarian economy where agricultural co-operatives could become the beneficiaries and access agricultural markets to alleviate poverty and create job opportunities. However, co-operatives in South Africa do not have a good track record in reducing poverty and providing employment.

Co-operatives in South Africa have been criticised for failing to create jobs and alleviate poverty, and some of the criticism is attributed by too much state involvement. Thaba and Mbohwa (2015) suggest that some co-operatives in South Africa do not emerge naturally and are instead initiated by government efforts to eradicate poverty. This effort defeats the bottom-up approach to development in which co-operatives are well known. In recent years, many co-operatives had gone out of business before their operations took off. Kanyane and Ilorah (2015) state that the reason behind the demise of the cooperative movement in South Africa is due to a lack of education on co-operatives, lack of practical support networks, lack of financial support, and the unrealistic expectations of the true nature of co-operatives derived from the lack of knowledge.

The state of co-operatives in South Africa reveals that the sector is in a dismal state and is in need of an inquiry to figure out its shortfalls and potential remedies carefully. Khumalo (2014) revealed that there was a 12% survival rate of co-operatives in the country, and the main challenge for the failure of co-operatives was that most people embrace the concept without fully understanding it. There are a plethora of challenges that have attributed to the failure of co-operatives. These include low education and skills among leadership and management, and as a result, business technicalities and conflict management become challenging (Khumalo 2014). Also, the overdependence on external assistance tends to erode autonomous and democratic control on co-operatives, and the dependency syndrome leads to demotivation

when outside assistance ceases to flow (Khumalo 2014). Other challenges included access to markets and the inability of the government to procure goods and services from co-operatives. Despite these challenges, some people still participate in co-operatives and have managed to improve their livelihoods. Although these challenges mentioned above affect most co-operatives in the country, thus it is interesting to understand why people still participate in co-operatives, and what factors influence people to participate in agricultural co-operatives.

1.4. Study rationale

Co-operatives are an effective vehicle towards local economic development and national economic growth. Co-operatives also provide direct access and marketing between producers and consumers. African countries, such as South Africa, need to create an enabling environment and strong developmental foundation for the growth and sustainability of co-operatives. The growth of the co-operative sector will ensure that poverty is reduced, and jobs are created. The beneficiaries of this poverty reduction and job creation initiative by co-operatives will be the youth who form the bulge of Africa's population.

The interest in agricultural co-operatives is derived from the notion that they are the largest in terms of the market size (Birchall 2004). Agricultural co-operatives are also the oldest among co-operatives, have a global footprint, and also have a track record in alleviating poverty and providing job opportunities. Youth participation is of particular importance as it allows the study to gain insight into how these impoverished and unemployed young black people deal with the adversities of the agricultural co-operative sector which is monopolised by elite white commercial farmers who control both the markets and arable land. By focusing on the youth, the study will be looking at the individual level of analysis, that is the choices and perceptions of young people who have established or joined agricultural co-operatives.

Scholars who have conducted studies on co-operatives' socio-economic capabilities have focused mainly on poverty reduction and food security (Philip 2003; Ortmann and King, 2007a). A few of the studies reflect on factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives, which could be vital in attracting young people to venture in the co-operative sector. The major limitation of past research studies on co-operatives is their inability to contribute to the youth unemployment debate. This study focuses primarily on agricultural co-operatives with a large youth membership. The study also investigated whether poverty can be reduced through employment creation by using agricultural co-operatives as an income-

generating mechanism. The primary outcome of the study will be to investigate whether youth participation in agricultural co-operatives can contribute to youth employment and socio-economic development in eThekwin. This outcome will be achieved by investigating the factors that either encourage or hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

Researchers have based their studies of co-operatives through their ability to reduce poverty by creating sustainable rural livelihoods. Co-operative members can combine natural capital, human capital, social capital and financial capital to create strategies that are resistant to shocks and stresses. Scoones lists these capitals as livelihood resources which can be combined to develop and implement sustainable livelihood strategies that would alleviate poverty and reduce inequality (Scoones 1998). Studies have reiterated the co-operative model role's ability to meet the basic needs of members and their extended households. Co-operatives have been recorded to meet the needs of members through a process of self-organisation by poor people in developing countries (Birchall 2004). Birchall employs the basic needs theoretical framework by focusing on the people's basic needs rather than what people already have. My study will focus on the capabilities of the youth who participate in agricultural co-operatives. The results will contribute to research and will have policy implications, as these capabilities will enable agricultural co-operatives to be formed organically; thus, maintaining their autonomy.

1.5. Objectives and research questions

1.5.1. Aim

The study aims to determine the factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives located in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekwin.

1.5.2. Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

- To determine the youth understanding of agricultural co-operatives and their functions.
- To understand factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.
- To examine existing governance support structures for youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.
- To determine whether agricultural co-operatives can contribute to youth employment creation in eThekwin.

1.5.3. Research questions

The main research question for the study is:

What are the factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives located in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni?

The subsidiary questions are:

- What are young peoples' understanding of an agricultural co-operative and how it functions?
- What are the factors that influence the participation of youth in agricultural co-operatives?
- How do existing governance structures support or hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives?
- How can agricultural co-operatives contribute to youth employment creation and socio-economic growth in eThekweni?

1.6. Organisation of the study

This dissertation consists of six (6) chapters. Chapter one consists of the introduction and background of co-operatives in South Africa, the research problem statement, the rationale of the study and the objectives of the research. Chapter two presents the literature review, which begins with a brief history and definition of co-operatives and follows with international status, African status and South African status of agricultural co-operatives. The literature review also features the status of youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Chapter three presents the capabilities approach the theoretical framework and the participation conceptual framework. Chapter four presents a detailed outline of the research methodology, including the data collection and analysis techniques which have been employed by this study. Chapter five presents the data obtained from the field research as well as an analysis and interpretation of the results. The final chapter, chapter six, presents the research findings, discusses the findings concerning the literature and theoretical framework, and concludes.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a literature review on agricultural co-operatives, including the historical emergence of the co-operative model which has been adopted globally. First, the chapter provides brief literature on the historical emergence of the modern agricultural co-operative model. Second, the chapter reviews agricultural co-operatives on a global context by discussing co-operatives that emerged in China, France, and Brazil. Third, the chapter will follow with a review of agricultural co-operatives in Africa will focus on countries such as Uganda, Tanzania, and Kenya. Lastly, the chapter will critically review the literature on agricultural co-operatives in South Africa in the pre-and post-Apartheid periods. This chapter will be guided by the criteria which are channelled towards the objectives of the research study. The criteria will be based on the following: the status of agricultural co-operatives, and participation in agricultural co-operatives. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the global trends on agricultural co-operatives, including dominant approaches that have been applied, ways in which people participate in agricultural co-operatives, and possible gaps in current literature.

2.2. Historical Emergence and Definition of the Co-operative Concept

The idea of cooperation is not a new phenomenon in human history. Many scholars point to the formation of the Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers in 1844 as the first successful co-operative. However, in 1752 Benjamin Franklin helped organise the first co-operative in the United States – The Philadelphia Contribution-ship for the Insurance of Homes Loss on Fire (Burt 2004). The famous Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers was later established in 1844 by people who were suffering from social dislocation of the industrial revolution (Fairbairn 1994). The consumer co-operative's objectives were to address members' needs for employment, education, housing, food and other social requirements (Ortmann and King 2007). In the former Soviet Union during the First World War period, the co-operative movement grew exponentially as an alternative movement to shield Capitalism from penetrating the rural peasantry. By 1915 there were over 35 000 registered co-operatives in Russia, with over 11 million members who supported over 60 million household members (Chaianov 1991). Since then, the co-operative movement has established a global footprint and

has been the alternative bottom-up socio-economic development model used by impoverished people who struggle to penetrate the global capitalist economy.

The guiding principles observed from the Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers, and other agricultural co-operatives that emerged after the great American Civil War set the foundation for the conceptualisation of internationally accepted principles of co-operatives, including defining co-operatives (Burt 2004). In 1987, the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) defined co-operatives as businesses that are owned and controlled by the individuals who use its services, and whose benefits are shared by users based on use (USDA 2002, 7). The International Cooperative Alliance (ICA) further developed a globally accepted definition. It defined a co-operative as an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their everyday economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically-controlled enterprise (ICA 1995). This ICA definition of co-operatives emphasises that co-operatives are solely owned by individual members who have common visions or aspirations to improve their livelihoods and quality of life. The democratic control element of co-operatives emphasises that each member has the right to vote, which allows for vulnerable, marginalised and impoverished members, such as the youth and women, a chance to be heard.

Co-operatives are based on the values which were developed by the ICA, which include self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity and solidarity (ICA 1995). These values have developed a culture in which co-operatives are meant to practice to build resilience against the destructive forces of global Capitalism. The USDA initially developed three co-operative principles which were the user-owned principle which stated that co-operatives are owned by the people who use it, the user-controlled principle which stated that co-operatives are controlled by the people who use it, and the user-benefits principle which stated that its members share the benefits generated by the co-operative based on use (USDA 2002). These principles only emphasised the internal logic of co-operatives rather than the broader socio-economic responsibility (Birchall 2005). The ICA further developed seven principles which included voluntary and open membership, democratic member control, member economic participation, autonomy and independence, provision of education, training and information, cooperation among cooperatives, and concern for the community (ICA 1995). These seven principles emphasise a broader socio-economic trajectory in which co-operatives can play a significant role in the reduction of poverty and inequality and employment creation.

There are different types of co-operatives which all fall under two main categories, namely worker co-operatives and user-co-operatives. Worker co-operatives are those owned and controlled by the employees of the co-operative based on one member one vote, providing a radical alternative to the employee relations experienced in conventional enterprises (Philip 2003). In contrast to worker co-operatives, user co-operatives are those owned and controlled by the consumers instead of the employees; where members use a collective organisation to create economies of scale as a method of gaining an economic advantage (Philip 2003). A typical example of a user co-operative would be an agricultural processing co-op where farmers who contribute to the co-op become members, instead of the workers who process the produce.

There are various types of co-operatives mentioned in South Africa's Co-operatives Act of 2005; these include but are not limited to housing co-operatives, worker co-operatives, social co-operatives, agricultural co-operatives, consumer co-operatives, financial service co-operatives, housing co-operatives, and service co-operatives (RSA 2005). For this study, I shall only focus on agricultural co-operatives, which have been defined by the Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) as those that produce and process or market agricultural products and supplies agricultural inputs and services to its members (DAFF 2010). Agricultural co-operatives can be distinguished between agricultural service co-operatives which provide services to individual farmer members, and agricultural production co-operatives where production resources such as land and machinery are pooled together and members farm and produce jointly (Cobia 1989). The focus on agricultural co-operatives comes amidst hotly contested issues of land redistribution and the proposed land expropriation without compensation, which are gradually re-shaping the political economy of South Africa.

2.3. Agricultural Co-operatives in a Global Context: China, France, Brazil

China was chosen to be reviewed in this study because it has a mostly rural landscape with numerous agricultural activities taking place that aims to provide food security for its massive population, while also exporting a significant portion of its agricultural produce abroad. It was intriguing to review China's agricultural co-operatives who are democratic but operate in a less democratic socio-economic and political context. France was chosen for its rich agricultural history, especially in the dairy and wine industries. France boasts a large number of thriving agriculture and food processing companies such as Parmalat who began operating as a farmer-owned co-operative. Brazil was selected for its unique agricultural sector, which is

strengthened by its agricultural co-operatives that produce 50% of domestically consumed agricultural produce.

2.3.1. China

China's agricultural sector has experienced some dramatic and positive changes in the past two decades, having been supported by the macro-economic policy reforms towards rapid industrialisation and urbanisation, and the enactment of the 2007 Cooperatives Law for specialised farmer co-operatives (Song, et al. 2014). The Law of the People's Republic of China on Specialised Farmer Co-operatives 2007 was enacted to support and guide the development of agricultural co-operatives, regulating their organisation and behaviour and protecting their lawful rights and interests, and promoting agricultural development in rural areas (NPC 2007). Furthermore, China's law on farmer co-operatives prescribes to the same democratic principles promoted by the ICA. These include voluntary membership status, equal member status and democratic management, profit distribution according to contribution (NPC 2007). The adoption of such democratic principles by the Communist Party of China is beneficial for the growth and sustainability of agricultural co-operatives in China.

There are slight deviations in China's co-operative legislation which were altered as a result of observations from European and North American co-operatives. Although each member enjoys one vote, additional voting rights of up to 20% may be issued to a member with the highest capital contribution to the co-operative (Bijman and Hu 2011; Song, et al. 2014). Furthermore, agricultural co-operatives are exempted from paying Value Added Tax (VAT) when selling products to their members and registered companies buying from co-operatives receive a 16% tax discount (Bijman and Hu 2011; Song, et al. 2014). These lucrative incentives have led to a significant increase in the number of registered agricultural co-operatives in China. According to Xinhuan, China had over 4 million households engaged in small-scale farming, with over 910 000 registered agricultural co-operatives accounting for over 44,6% of all agricultural business in 2016 (Xinhua 2017).

Zheng, Wang and Awokuse (2012) embarked on an empirical study to investigate the determinants of farmer/producers' participation in agricultural co-operatives using data sets from collected surveys in northern China. The results from their study suggested that crop type, geographical location, educational attainment, farm expansion, operational costs, and risk levels were among the key determinants for farmers' perspective and participation in agricultural co-operatives (Zheng, Wang and Awokuse 2012). In China, farmers that plant cash

crops were more likely to participate in agricultural co-operatives (Zheng, Wang and Awokuse 2012). However, grain crops such as rice were an exception, as most grain producers in China receive a state grant and are more likely to operate independently rather than part of a co-operative (Zheng, Wang and Awokuse 2012). Producers who participate in agricultural co-operatives in China could be motivated by a broader economic enrichment strategy through the commodification of crops and competing in a market-led global Capitalist economy.

Despite now favourable legislative and market conditions for agricultural co-operatives in China, taking into consideration the 2007 Cooperatives Law and neoliberal economic policy adoptions by the state, farmer participation in agricultural co-operatives remains quite low (Ito, Bao and Su 2012). Many well-established co-operatives set up entry barriers, leaving a large number of small-scale farmers excluded from some state-led programs, and thereby discouraging participation in agricultural co-operatives in China (Ito, Bao and Su 2012). Ito, Bao and Su's (2012) study showed that small-scale farmers were often left out of some of the government extension programmes in the rural areas, creating challenges of pro-poor agricultural growth in China. These inequalities between small-scale and commercial farmers in China pose severe threats to the participation of emerging farmers and the ultimate sustainability of agricultural co-operatives as a socio-economic development strategy.

Youth participation in agricultural co-operatives in China has gradually increased over the past few years. The Chinese government has been on a path to attract more young people living in rural areas to participate in agriculture and establish agricultural co-operatives. According to Huang (2013) the Ministry of Agriculture has been training 1500 young talents and had also been encouraging rural youth and college graduates to become involved and participate in agricultural co-operatives. Supportive policies have been put in place to provide financial support and link young farmers with domestic and international markets (Huang 2013). The South China Morning Post (2018) reported that more and more young PhD and Masters university graduates were returning to the rural areas of China to inspire a change in agriculture through innovation and a revival of traditional farming techniques. This trajectory by the Chinese government will ensure that the agricultural industry is sustained through the inclusion of talented young farmers.

2.3.2. France

France has the largest co-operative membership in Europe with over 26 million members who account for nearly 40% of the French population and also employs over 1,2 million people who

account for nearly 4% of the population (Cooperatives Europe 2016). France's 22,517 co-operatives have the most considerable turnover in Europe with over 307 € billion annually, followed by Germany with 195 € billion, and Italy with 150 € billion (Cooperatives Europe 2016). France has a strong agricultural co-operative market with every three out of four farmers, or nearly 75% of farmers, belonging to at least one agricultural co-operative (Peres, et al. 2010).

Table 2.1: Cooperative Sectors in France - 2015

	Co-op Enterprises	Members	Employees	Annual Turnover (€)
Agriculture	14,429	51,230	61,800	86 € billion
Banking	92	24,700,000	331,650	68.9 € billion
Consumer	35	750,000	6,200	1.372 € billion
Housing	175	60,462	1,087	649 € million
Industry, Service, Social	3,077	110,563	182,306	5.787 € billion
Retail	89	31,574	534,308	143.5 € billion

Source: Cooperatives Europe (2016). Cooperatives Europe Key Figures 2015

Figures released by Cooperatives Europe indicate that France's co-operative sector is mostly comprised of agricultural co-operatives with over 14,429 active co-operative enterprises in 2015 (see Table 1). France's agricultural co-operatives also have the second-largest annual turnover of over 86 € billion, surpassed only by retail co-operatives who contribute an annual turnover of over 143 € billion. Agricultural co-operatives in France have contributed to substantial rural development supported by strong cooperative legislation and government subsidies (Peres, et al. 2010).

Agricultural co-operatives in France are only allowed by law to operate and conduct activities on specific geographical locations. However, amendments to legislation allowed for co-operatives to do business with non-members for up to 20% of their turnover, leading to agricultural co-operatives' acquisition of commercial companies as subsidiaries and ultimately expanding their operations and geographical footprint (Peres, et al. 2010; Dedieu and Courleux

2011). As a result, several agricultural co-operatives in France have commercial subsidiaries. However, this has led to those agricultural co-operatives losing their tax exemption status (Dedieu and Courleux 2011). Also, legislative reform has allowed outside investors to purchase shares in the registered capital of co-operatives up to a maximum of 50%, and they can have a maximum of 20% voting rights. At the same time, subsidiaries could also redistribute dividends among co-operative members (Dedieu and Courleux 2011). These legislative reforms have strengthened the position of agricultural co-operatives in France and have contributed to their socio-economic sustainability.

The overall participation of young people in French co-operatives is marginally higher than participation in conventional enterprises. According to a June 2018 report released by CICOPA, a sector organisation for the ICA that promotes worker and social co-operatives, young managers under the age of 35 represented 15% of all managers within worker and social enterprises, compared to 11% in conventional enterprises (CICOPA 2018). The increase in youth participation in cooperatives has been a result of the aftermath of the 2008 global financial crisis, which witnessed significant purchases of enterprises by employees, and re-establishments of these enterprises into worker and producer co-operatives (CICOPA 2018).

Co-operative legislative reforms in France have also attracted young people in pursuing their entrepreneurial goals by establishing business and employment co-operatives (Seeberger 2014). The Social and Solidarity Economy law which was approved in 2014 introduced a legal recognition and established a new status of entrepreneur-employee, or business-employment co-operatives; providing higher levels of protection and rights, social security schemes, unemployment and sickness benefits compared to enterprises of similar legal status (CICOPA 2018). These benefits, coupled with the tax exemption status agricultural co-operatives enjoy in France, have the potential to attract new young agricultural entrepreneurs.

There are limited studies conducted on French agricultural co-operative member participation in the past decade. Barraud-Didier et al. (2012) conducted an empirical study that explored the relationship between members' trust and participation in the governance of French agricultural co-operatives. The study also examined the links between trust, organisational commitment and members' commitment in the participation of the governance of their co-operative (Barraud-Didier, Henninger and El Akremi 2012). The study revealed that "members' trust impacted their participation through their affective commitment and the mediator effect of affective commitment between trust and participation was complete" (Barraud-Didier,

Henninger and El Akremi 2012:14). Increased participation in co-operative governance matters was dependent on the trust the members have on the co-operative managers.

2.3.3. Brazil

Brazil's agricultural co-operatives play a significant role in ensuring food security for domestic consumption and exports. Dubbed as the breadbasket of the world, Brazil has over 1,543 agricultural co-operatives that supply over 50% of the country's food, and over 70% of the country's food consumption is domestic (ICA COOP 2017). Furthermore, co-operatives in Brazil employ over 361,000 people and are responsible for over USD \$5,2 billion in exports (ICA COOP 2017). These figures suggest that agricultural co-operatives are key contributors in Brazil's economy. Co-operatives in Brazil are protected by Article 4 and 5 of the Brazilian Federal Constitution of 1988, which dictates the creation and independence of cooperatives into law and prohibits any form of state interference (Dias 2018).

Agricultural co-operatives in Brazil are supported and capacitated by formal networks which were established to foster relations between the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture and agricultural co-operatives. The Organisation of Brazilian Cooperatives (*Organização das Cooperativas no Brasil – OCB*) was established in 1969 as a national trade body for co-operatives and provided technical and financial support through rural credit unions while lobbying for legislation that is favourable to the co-operative sector (ICA COOP 2017). "There are currently 13 types of co-operatives active under the OCB in Brazil: (1) consumption, (2) credit, (4) special (social), (5) housing, (6) infrastructure, (7) mineral, (8) production, (9) health, (10) labour, (11) transportation, (12) educational, and (13) tourism & leisure" (Dias 2018:3). Brazil's state of co-operatives is intriguing as these types of co-operatives mentioned above represent the key economic sectors that potentially play a significant role in the development of impoverished societies.

An empirical study conducted by Cechin, et al. (2013), on the drivers of pro-active membership participation in Brazil's agricultural co-operatives, revealed that individual farmer members were largely driven by endowments, economic motivations and cooperative ideology. According to Cechin, et al. (2013), the likelihood of a farmer to proactively participate in the co-operative was due to the duration of the membership as General Assemblies provided potential networking opportunities. Economic motivations such as better prices and technical assistance encouraged farmers to proactively participate in agricultural co-operatives (Cechin, et al. 2013). Also, the cooperative ideology which is associated with the ICA principles of

democratic member control and concern for community seemed to be a motivation for continued proactive participation in Brazil's agricultural co-operatives (Cechin, et al. 2013).

Co-operatives often provide a platform to enhance individual capabilities through capacity building and knowledge changing. Capacity building and knowledge sharing can significantly contribute to the empowerment and decision-making of individuals (Zimmerman and Rappaport 1988). Farmers with lower levels of education seemed to participate proactively in Brazil's agricultural co-operatives, with hopes to enhance their leadership and management capabilities (Cechin, et al. 2013). Tremblay and Gutberlet (2010) also conducted an empirical study into recycling co-operatives in Sao Paolo, Brazil, which revealed that members were motivated to participate to strengthen their leadership skills. Members of various recycling co-operatives in Sao Paolo participated to share knowledge and to enhance social capital through networking, building trust and having mutual interests (Tremblay and Gutberlet 2010). Participation in Brazil's co-operatives has been embedded in the social structures of farmers and individuals who have embraced the values and principles of democracy and concern for the community.

2.4. Agricultural Co-operatives in Africa: Uganda, Tanzania, Kenya

Agricultural co-operatives in Africa can be traced to the colonisation era. Ugandan agricultural co-operatives were chosen for their resilience of the colonial system. At the same time, Tanzania was chosen for its implementation of a radical socio-economic transformation system of Ujamaa, which abolished all form of colonial economic strategies, including co-operatives. Kenya was chosen because of its massive successes in the co-operative industry, as it also leads Africa in co-operative development and support. In contrast, its co-operatives contribute 47% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

2.4.1. Uganda

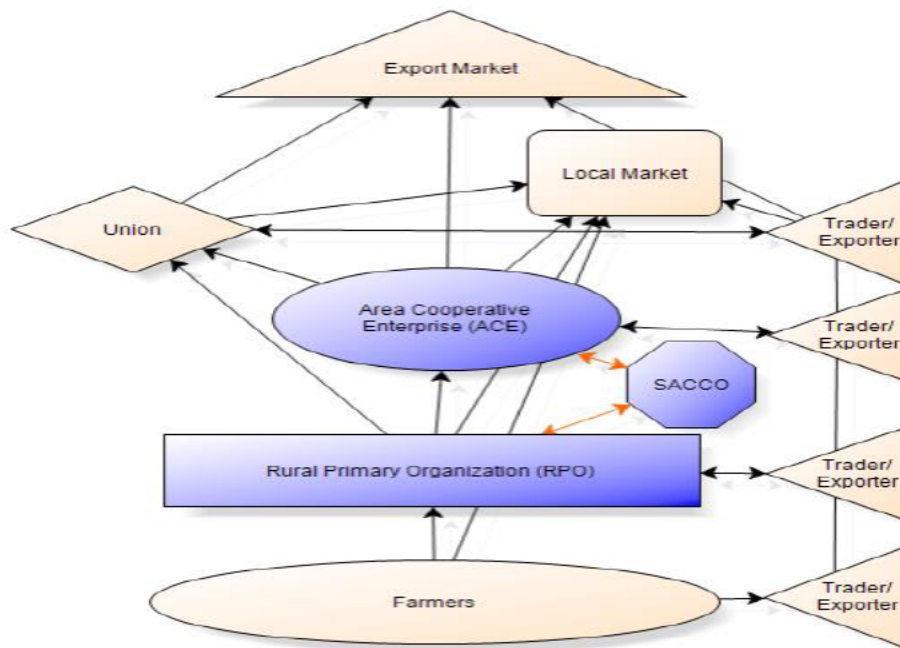
The Ugandan co-operative movement can be traced back to 1913, where a group of farmers united to market and sell their produce collectively. The four farmers, who became known as the Kinukulya Growers, united as a response to the harsh and exploitative colonial system which alienated cash crop native farmers and benefited Europeans through processing and marketing (Thangata 2016). During the colonial era of the early 20th century, African farmers saw the need of forming co-operatives to provide them with a collective voice and strong bargaining power (Mukasa 1997; Thangata 2016). Continued colonial exploitation was

confronted by resistance by farmers who formed the Buganda Growers Association in 1923 and the Uganda Growers Cooperative Association in 1933 (Thangata 2016). The resistance continued until British Governor Sir Andrew Cohen enacted the Cooperatives Societies Act in 1952.

Co-operatives in Uganda flourished in the post-colonial era, reaching almost all economic sectors, and by 1970 became the largest employer in the country. This all changed when the post-colonial government removed all autonomy and placed co-operatives under ministerial control through the Cooperatives Societies Act of 1970 (Thangata 2016). The cooperative movement in Uganda ultimately collapsed due to a loss of capital investment to wars and conflicts, and further declined as a result of the implementation of the structural adjustment programmes (SAP) caused by the global oil crisis and mounting fiscal debt (Mukasa 1997; Thangata 2016). Hope for the revival of cooperatives in Uganda was renewed after the enactment of the cooperative societies statute in 1991, which was then developed into an Act Cap 112 in the Ugandan laws, and continues to be used today (Thangata 2016). Undoubtedly, the Eurocentric neoliberal agenda in Africa not only affected governments and the private sector but crippled the co-operative sector to near extinction.

The sustainability of co-operatives in Uganda is spearheaded by the Uganda Cooperatives Alliance (UCA) which was established in 1961 and is a member of the ICA. The UCA has adopted an integrated approach to agricultural co-operative that compliments both financing and marketing services for rural co-operatives. The tripartite co-operative model is an integrated model which comprises of the Savings and Credit Cooperative Organisations (SACCOs) which provides access to finance, the Rural Producer Organisations (RPOs) and Area Cooperative Enterprises (ACEs) which provide marketing services (Kwapong 2013). ACEs play a vital role in bulk buying from RPOs then bulk exporting to local and international markets, while SACCOs provide much needed financial services to both ACEs and RPOs (see Figure 1). Kwapong (2013) states that although they face a few challenges such as members not fully participating and side-selling, the tripartite co-operative model has reached success by linking rural co-operatives to profitable markets and granting them access to financial services. These organisations that form a tripartite movement have also been instrumental in the government's poverty programs that aim to address issues of poverty and rural development in Uganda (Kwapong 2013).

Figure 2.1: Tripartite Cooperative Model of Uganda's Agricultural Co-operatives



Source: Kwapong & Korugyendo (2010). The revival of agricultural cooperatives in Uganda

The UCA strongly supports Uganda's agricultural co-operatives in conjunction with the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Cooperatives which has a Department of Cooperative Development that is responsible for policy formulation, planning and coordination of cooperative development. The UCA encourages farmers to produce at least three main crops to ensure diversification of crops and an all-year revenue stream (Kwapong and Korugyendo 2010) "To kick-start the operations of newly established ACEs, UCA provides payments to cover the wages of ACE managers during the first year to reduce ACE operational overhead costs and provides some office equipment and logistics" (Kwapong and Korugyendo 2010: 3). Co-operatives are then treated like independent and profitable private businesses and are expected to make a profit for their farmers (Kwapong and Korugyendo 2010). This integrated cooperative approach has strengthened agricultural co-operatives in Uganda and remains a potential exemplary model for co-operatives across Africa.

The idea of cooperative participation, especially for young women and men in Uganda, presents specific opportunities and challenges. The youth in Uganda, especially young women, are encouraged to participate in co-operatives due to the skills and knowledge gained through training provided. In contrast, young men are encouraged to participate due to opportunities such as increasing production and accessing inputs and equipment (Flink, Vaast and Jacobs

2018). Meeting the membership criteria, such as adhering to the terms and conditions, fees, and quantity of yield remain one of the critical challenges that discourage young people from participating in Uganda's agricultural co-operative sector (Flink, Vaast and Jacobs 2018). Furthermore, access to land and finance seems to be the main barriers hindered young people from actively participating in co-operatives (Flink, Vaast and Jacobs 2018). In the milk industry, owning a cow requires one to have access to land for grazing, including buying feed. Therefore, having access to land and finance become vital factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

Meier zu Selhausen (2016) conducted a study that investigates the determinants of women's participation in Ugandan agricultural co-operatives. The study revealed that access to land for women was one of the critical determinants that influenced active participation in agricultural co-operatives, as land provided under co-operatives is formal and titled compared to the customary land tenure systems (Meier zu Selhausen 2016). Other determinants for women's participation in agricultural co-operatives included intra-household dynamics, where women co-operative members utilise their spouses' arable land for coffee production to boost joint household income (Meier zu Selhausen 2016). This finding resonates with studies by Were, Roy and Swallow (2008) who state that the management of natural resources is more effective when both spouses are involved. This finding also indicates that women who come from households with ample arable land are likely to participate in agricultural co-operatives in attempts to access finance and marketing whilst improving household income.

2.4.2. Tanzania

Since the early 20th century, Tanzania has been well known for growing coffee as a cash crop that was exported in the global market. Tanzania exported raw coffee beans as a commodity that was later processed in industrialised Western countries. The Tanzanian cooperative movement was informally established in 1925 by a large group of peasants from mainland Tanzania, formerly known as Tanganyika, who wanted to capture part of the trade profits from their exports (Maghimbi 2010; Omar Mruma 2014). The Cooperative Ordinance (Cap. 112) was enacted as the first co-operative legislation in 1932. Tanzania's independence in 1961 signalled new hopes for the cooperative movement which struggled under colonial administration for decades. As such, multipurpose co-operatives started emerging soon after independence and included SACCOs that provided loans and training to primary co-operatives. According to Maghimbi (2010), the number of primary co-operatives increased from 573 in

1967 to 1,518 in 1999, as many people equated independence with economic development. “By 1968 Tanzania had the largest co-operative movement in Africa, and the third-largest cooperative movement in the world in terms of the percentage of the market share of agricultural exports, only surpassed by Denmark and Israel” (Omar Mruma 2014:2). The National Cooperative Bank, which was formed in 1964, played a vital role in the development of co-operatives by providing loans to rural farmers while providing transaction accounts and fixed deposits to co-operatives.

Tanzania soon witnessed an unprecedented tectonic shift in the political-economic landscape by the passing of the 1967 Arusha Declaration. The declaration was meant to end the exploitation and inequalities by converting the country into a Socialist and Self-reliant nation through rapid nationalisation and decentralisation of power to local Ujamaa villages (Nyerere 1977). However, the declaration later led to the abolishment of all primary co-operatives in 1976, including the dissolution of the National Cooperative Bank. Functions of primary co-operatives were transferred to local villages which formed village co-operatives, while village governments took over crop marketing functions, and co-operative union functions were taken by crop authorities who had to purchase crops directly from villagers (Omar Mruma 2014). The Arusha Declaration rendered Tanzania’s lucrative agricultural co-operatives extinct and severely damaged the country’s economy.

After the failure of crop authorities to purchase crops from villagers, the government realised the importance of co-operatives and announced the reintroduction of co-operatives in 1982, and later enacted the Cooperative Societies Act of 1991 that rendered co-operatives autonomous (Maghimbi 2010; Omar Mruma 2014). Tanzania later enacted the Cooperative Societies Act of 2003 which subscribed to the ICA values and principles of democratic membership, autonomy and concern for the community. This Act, together with the Cooperative Rules of 2004, has opened the pathway for all forms of co-operatives to be established and has placed the cooperative movement on a revival trajectory. As such, the number of co-operatives has increased steadily to roughly 9,565 co-operatives with memberships of over 2,506,412 in 2011 (Omar Mruma 2014). The increase in co-operatives and memberships signalled that more citizens were actively participating in reviving the once glorious co-operative sector of Tanzania.

Participation in Tanzania’s co-operatives has decreased significantly in the past decades. The citizens of Tanzania have major trust issues on co-operatives and the government’s ability to

ensure the future and sustainability of co-operatives (Omar Mruma 2014). This mistrust is corroborated by the loss of property, capital and investment which transpired post the abolishment of co-operatives by the government. On the other hand, the youth in Tanzania views agriculture as a sector for poor people or those that have low levels of education (Rutta 2012). Nonetheless, participation in co-operatives has steadily increased after the enactment of flexible legislation which recognised the autonomy and democratic significance of co-operatives. Furthermore, the Cooperatives Policy 2004 recognises the significant role women play in the development of communities. As such, SACCOs should have at least one third (1/3) of women as members, and women should be given priority in top management positions (Gasper 2013). According to Gasper (2013), this strategy is to encourage women to actively participate in SACCOs because of the likelihood of benefits to trickle-down to their families and at a national level.

Although the membership of men surpasses that of women in all co-operative types, studies have revealed that women often actively participate more than men in decision-making platforms such as the Annual General Meetings (AGMs). Majurin (2012) states that despite a low representation of women in SACCOs, the overall attendance of women in AGMs was 54 per cent. This finding signals the dedication and empowerment women possess in actively participating in the decision-making processes of co-operatives in Tanzania. The determinants that hinder most women from participating in co-operatives are similar to those experienced in Uganda, where asset ownership and socio-cultural barriers shape the levels of women participation in co-operatives (Majurin 2012). The traditional conceptions on the socially constructed gender roles of men and women, and their expected behavioural patterns, results in decreased women participation in co-operatives.

2.4.3. Kenya

Kenya has one of the oldest and most successful cooperative movements in African history, as the first co-operative was formed by dairy farmers in 1908, and the cooperative movement remains the largest in Africa and 7th largest in the world. Kenya's first Cooperative Ordinance which regulated the co-operative was enacted in 1931, and in 1946 the colonial administrators acknowledged the role Africans could play in the economy and encouraged their participation through co-operatives (Gatuguta, Kimotho and Kiptoo 2014). The Cooperative Development Policy drafted in 1970 was the first post-independence government's response to consolidate co-operative activities including the improvement of management societies and intensification

of education and training for board committees and management staff, and the provision of supervisors from the government (Gatuguta, Kimotho and Kiptoo 2014). The government also established the Ministry of Cooperative Development and Marketing to regulate and supervise co-operatives.

Kenya's cooperative movement, as in most African countries, traversed into two eras, namely state control and liberalisation. The state control era stretches from the colonial government to the post-independence government, where co-operatives were used as a political vehicle to implement the government's socio-economic policies (Wanyama 2016). While the second era of liberalisation recognised that the potential contribution to the development of co-operatives could only be realised if they participated according to market principles (Wanyama 2016). Hence, the government embraced the second era by introducing new policy legislation, the Cooperative Societies Act No. 12 of 1997, to liberalise co-operatives. The liberalisation of Kenya's co-operatives meant the adoption of ICA values and principles of autonomy and democratic governance. Kenya's co-operative legislation has since been amended to the Cooperative Societies (Amendment) Act No. of 2004, which includes the Co-operative Tribunal Court and specialised Co-operative Commercial Court. The Tribunal court is the first of its kind in Africa, and many countries are consulting with Kenya on the establishment of Tribunal courts in their countries (Gatuguta, Kimotho and Kiptoo 2014).

Kenya's government is adamant in promoting the expansion of the cooperative movement in all sectors of the economy. As a result, over 63 per cent of Kenya's 48 million people are currently participating directly or indirectly in cooperative-based enterprises, while over 80% of the population derive their income either directly or indirectly through co-operative activities (Wanyama 2016). Agricultural co-operatives are one of the largest contributors in the Kenyan economy. According to Wanyama (2016), agricultural co-operatives are in charge of over 72 per cent of coffee sales, 95 per cent are in charge of cotton sales, 76 per cent of dairy product sales, and 90 per cent of pyrethrum sales. The largest contributors to Kenya's socio-economic development are the SACCOS, including among them the Cooperative Bank of Kenya which is the 3rd largest bank in the country, and the Cooperative Insurance Company which is the 2nd largest in Kenya and the only one of its kind in Africa (Wanyama 2016). Kenya's SACCO sector has also been ranked as the fastest-growing subsector in the world.

Wanyama (2016) states that over 63 per cent of Kenya's population participates directly or indirectly in cooperative-baser enterprises, while over 80 per cent of the population derive their

incomes directly or indirectly from co-operative activities. This finding highlights the interdependent role between co-operatives and Kenya's mainstream economy, where SACCOs and agricultural co-operatives contribute to approximately 45 per cent of Kenya's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and directly employs over 500,000 people (Nyatichi 2015). The visible impacts on socio-economic development brought by co-operatives in Kenya have encouraged more people, especially women and youth, to participate in agricultural co-operatives.

The International Labour Organisation estimated Kenya's youth unemployment to be at a staggering 22 per cent in 2016, and Kenya has a youth bulge with over 20 per cent of the population is young people aged 18 to 25. The high rural youth unemployment can be primarily associated with high levels of poverty. Hence, young people in Kenya are attracted by the cooperative movement as it provides high employment and entrepreneurial possibilities (Andhani 2017). However, many young farmers in Kenya end up being bystanders in co-operatives as they often do not own the assets and resources such as cattle and land (Andhani 2017). As a result, most young people cannot openly share their ideas and are discouraged from participating in decision-making structures due to the high patriarchal tendencies from the older generation of farmers (Andhani 2017). Most young unemployed people are well educated and are forced to return to rural areas due to a lack of employment opportunities in the cities. Therefore, these young people do not have the technical skills of farming and end up only being employees of agricultural co-operative with nominal participation of attending meetings (Andhani 2017). Young people often have to wait until they are older to be elected in councils and board committees.

2.5. Agricultural Co-operatives in South Africa – from Apartheid to Democracy

Agricultural co-operatives are not a new socio-economic development concept in South Africa. During the apartheid regime, the government heavily subsidised farmer co-operatives which led to them into acquiring sizeable assets and contributing significantly to the economy. Approximately 250 majority white-owned agricultural co-operatives existed in 1993, with over 142 000 members and contributing over R22, 5 billion to the economy and owning over R12 billion in assets (Satgar 2011). By 2005, that number had reduced to 78 white-owned agricultural co-operatives producing a turnover of roughly R 7 billion and having assets valued at R5, 4 billion (Satgar 2011). The reduction in the number of agricultural co-operatives is attributed to the transition from co-operative status to private (proprietary limited) company to

maintain a monopoly while competing globally in the agriculture and agri-food processing industries. Black people in South Africa were prohibited from establishing co-operatives during Apartheid and merely participated as general workers (Thaba and Mbohwa 2015). It was only after the post-1994 democratic era that the South African government began the process of repealing the Cooperatives Act of 1981, which was not conducive for black South Africans to establish co-operatives.

The South African Department of Trade and Industry formally accepted the ICA definition and co-operative principles in its Co-operative Policy document in 2004, which later informed the co-operative legislative framework in 2005 (DTI 2004). The Co-operative Act of 2005 laid the legislative foundation for the support and development of co-operatives as mechanisms to eradicate poverty and create jobs while maintaining autonomy and self-reliance. However, co-operatives in South Africa have been criticised for failing due to too much state involvement. Thaba and Mbohwa (2015) suggest that some co-operatives in South Africa do not emerge naturally and are instead initiated by government efforts to eradicate poverty. In recent years, many co-operatives had gone out of business before their operations took off. Kanyane and Ilorah (2015) state that the reason behind the demise of the cooperative movement in South Africa is due to a lack of education on co-operatives, lack of practical support networks, lack of financial support, and the unrealistic expectations of the true nature of co-operatives derived from the lack of knowledge.

Figure 2.2: Membership of Co-operatives in Provinces (2015)

Province	Total	Male	Female	Youth	People living with disabilities
Eastern Cape	8 627	3 650	4 977	1 092	115
Free State	1 274	729	545	159	6
Gauteng	1 246	557	689	280	45
KwaZulu-Natal	8 487	3 046	5 441	1 175	73
Limpopo	11 100	5 882	5 218	946	135
Mpumalanga	5 574	2 438	3 136	568	45
Northern Cape	1 765	776	989	237	10
North West	3 160	1 537	1 623	337	33
Western Cape	697	450	247	34	6
Total	41 930	19 065	22 865	4 828	468

Source: DAFF (2015). The 4th Annual Report on the Status of Co-operatives

There were an estimated 43 032 registered co-operatives with the Companies Intellectual Propriety Commission (CIPC) in 2009, and 26 per cent of which were based in KwaZulu-Natal (Rena 2017). An annual report issued out by DAFF in 2015, on a survey conducted on 1788 agricultural co-operatives across South Africa revealed the membership demographics per province. The report highlighted some pre-existing gender constructs in South Africa, where participation in agricultural activities is mostly considered to be for women. Out of the 1788 agricultural co-operatives who participated in the survey, only 19 065 members were male (45%), and 22 856 members were female (55%), while the remaining 4828 (12%) members were youth and 468 (1%) members were people living with disabilities (see Figure 2). Also, youth participation in KwaZulu-Natal's agricultural co-operatives was the highest with 1 175 members. Youth participation in South Africa's agricultural co-operatives is relatively low, considering that the country has a youth bulge and high levels of youth unemployment.

2.6. Agricultural co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal

Rural agricultural co-operatives in the province of KwaZulu-Natal operate on the backdrop of historical socio-economic and political dispensation. The majority of rural land in the province is under traditional leadership and administration of King Zwelithini of the Kingdom of KwaZulu. The land is administered under the Ingonyama Trust Board (ITB) and is under the jurisdiction of amaKhosi (traditional leaders), who are mandated to provide land tenure for rural locals. Land acquisition processes are traditional and are informed by customary practices and driven through social networks (Mbatha and Mchunu 2016). Hence, agricultural co-operatives follow the same land acquisition processes to obtain land to farm and are often provided with a lease agreement from the ITB as proof of land use. Agricultural co-operatives in the ITB administered land often face challenges when seeking finance through formal financial channels. The ITB lease agreement is hardly permissible as a form of security when seeking finance in banks. According to Qwabe (2014), land is the most widely accepted collateral in agricultural lending. Still, there are often problems with ownership and title rights, which makes formal financial institution lending to emerging co-operatives challenging.

A study by Dube (2016) found that among the many external challenges hindering the development of rural agricultural co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal was the lack of access to finance. This challenge can be linked with the insecure land tenure system that is operated by the ITB, where access to finance from banks is problematic for agricultural co-operatives because title deeds are not issued for the land utilised. Meanwhile, co-operatives require not

only funding for a start-up but also growth and expansion. As a result, several co-operatives end up using their financial contributions as start-up capital (Tshabalala 2013). Also, there is insignificant government funding and financial support for co-operatives, and that the lack of government funding is inhibiting production and growth for co-operatives (Tshabalala 2013). Another quantitative study on institutional governance of agricultural co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal revealed that poorly defined property rights in co-operatives give rise to low equity and debt capital, low investor confidence, and a loss of members (Chibanda, Ortmann and Lyne 2009).

The demise of agricultural co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal over the past decade has been caused by a myriad of issues including a lack of understanding of co-operatives as drivers of poverty and inequality. Philip (2003) states that co-operatives are viewed as a vehicle for job creation and poverty reduction instead of individual entrepreneurship. One of the main identified reasons for the failure of co-operatives in KwaZulu-Natal was the lack of interest from members (Dube 2016). A lack of understanding of co-operatives could attribute this lack of interest in agricultural co-operatives as a development tool. Chibanda, Ortmann and Lyne (2009) in their study found that only a few of agricultural co-operative members were genuinely interested in developing their co-operative, while some smallholder farmers only establish co-operative to access government grants rather than developing a cooperative business venture.

In 2009, the KwaZulu-Natal Economic Development Tourism and Environmental Affairs (KZN EDTEA) developed a KZN Co-operative Development Strategy that mandated all local municipalities in the province to formulate their co-operative development strategies. Hence, eThekweni Municipality developed its co-operative strategy in 2015. The co-operative strategy aims to create an enabling environment for the development of viable and self-sustaining co-operatives that can meaningfully participate in both the first and second economy (eThekweni Municipality 2015). This co-operative development strategy also aimed at tackling the challenges faced by co-operatives in the region, such as lack of access to finance, markets, cooperation among co-operatives, and technical skills. Some rural agriculture co-operatives often failed due to the lack of technical know-how associated with establishing and maintaining a farm (Dube 2016). With this said, education and skills training play a significant role in the development and growth of co-operatives. A study by Shaw (2009) also linked education and

training to the development of a co-operative voice, increased productivity and economic prosperity.

Despite the political will from eThekweni Municipality on the development and growth of co-operatives in the region, other factors were hindering the implementation of the co-operative development strategy. The lack of essential services in the rural periphery of the city, such as water and electricity, created a stumbling block for agricultural co-operatives. The lack of water in the rural periphery reflects the historical and current socio-economic and environmental factors underpinning spatial development in eThekweni (Sutherland and Lewis 2012). Peri-urban areas and the rural periphery raise the most significant challenges due to land ownership falling under the Traditional Authority, low housing densities, mobility of the population and the inaccessible and steep terrain (Gounden, et al. 2006). These significant environmental constraints, such as a shortage of water in the city and the steep terrain, are worsened by fiscal constraints to pursue bulk infrastructure projects in rural communities (Sutherland and Lewis 2012). Such environmental constraints, coupled with a lack of understanding of co-operatives, a lack of access funding and markets, hinders youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

2.7. Youth perspectives and participation in agricultural co-operatives in South Africa

Youth perspectives of agriculture often inform their participation in agricultural co-operatives. As an alternative to corporate businesses, co-operatives are viewed as a local economic development strategy (Khumalo 2014) to create jobs and alleviate poverty (Philip 2003). South Africa faces a youth unemployment crisis, and this creates a loophole where co-operatives can create jobs when the private sector fails. The persistent youth unemployment which has been one of the pressing socio-economic problems in South Africa due to a lack of networks and information for job opportunities, as well as financial resources and mobility to seek for work (Yù 2013).

Co-operatives can strengthen community networks by enhancing social cohesiveness and cooperative spirit (Kasabov 2016). Social cohesiveness forms a building block for social capital. Hence, social capital is also defined as one's ability to create and grow voluntary associations (Portes and Landolt 1996). Putnam (2000) states that social cohesion, social networks, norms and trust of civic engagement make up the pillars of social capital. Therefore, once trust and networks are established in communities, then people start working together to

improve their quality of life (Kay 2005). Through strong social networks and trust in communities, young people begin to participate meaningfully in co-operatives towards tackling the issue of unemployment.

There is limited literature on youth participation in South Africa's agricultural co-operative sector. A study on the mobilisation of youth in agriculture using the participatory extension approach in Go-Mothiba village, Limpopo was conducted. However, there was a limited reference to the participation of young people in agricultural co-operatives. In the study, the youth's perception on agriculture revealed that young people acknowledge the role agriculture continues to sustain household livelihoods as they can witness the harvests and livestock of farmers in their communities (Tolamo 2014). However, there was a great perception among young people that the agricultural sector was merely for under-achievers; those who were unable to complete high school or pursue higher education qualifications (Tolamo 2014). These findings resonate with Tanzania's case study, where the youth in Tanzania also view agriculture for those with low levels of education (Rutta 2012). Furthermore, the study revealed that there were insufficient support platforms that promoted youth participation in agriculture (Tolamo 2014). This finding suggested that agricultural information, such as information on financing and marketing, was not disseminated to potential young farmers. There were no attempts from local government and agricultural extension officers to expose the youth to progressive agricultural farms that could demonstrate various agricultural activities and opportunities.

Another empirical study into youth attitudes and expectations of agricultural careers in South Africa found that a third of the youth who participated in the study expressed clear interest and passion for agriculture (Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs 2019). Most young people viewed agriculture as an exciting career path, while some viewed the sector as a means of survival for households (Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs 2019). The findings on youth who were having a passion for agriculture, and the value they placed on agriculture over just making money for a living, carried policy implications and warranted transformation in an agricultural sector that is highly commercialised and monopolised by an elite group of farmers. Such transformation within the agriculture industry should take into consideration the participation of dynamic and tech-savvy young people who are passionate about agriculture.

2.8. Conclusion

This chapter outlined the historical emergence and early definitions of co-operatives. The values and principles promoted by the ICA have been universally adopted and enshrined in various country cooperative legislation frameworks. Other countries, such as China have slightly altered these values and principles to align cooperative policy with their current political and ideological landscape. France and Brazil have demonstrated to the global community that agricultural co-operatives can significantly contribute towards domestic and global food security; the latter producing 50 per cent of its domestic food products through agricultural co-operatives. The chapter also reviewed the literature on African countries and presented interesting case studies where co-operatives have passed through waves of colonialism, state independence and liberalisation. Uganda's tripartite co-operative model, which has been adopted by other African countries, is a unique method of linking farmers to finance and marketing opportunities. Kenya's cooperative movement, which is the largest in Africa and seventh-largest in the world, has proven that co-operatives have a future in Africa's agricultural economy. Youth and women participation in Africa's agricultural co-operatives remain a cause for concern. Gender disparities in the ownership of land and other resources, and the socially constructed gender roles of men and women, remain the barriers of active participation for the youth and women in Africa. The failure of most South African co-operatives could potentially discourage the participation of young people in hopes to improve their livelihoods. Meanwhile, KwaZulu-Natal's rural agricultural co-operative sector faces immense external challenges and environmental concerns. However, young people's positive perspective of agriculture as a profession does carry policy implications and warrants for a transformation of the agricultural sector in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

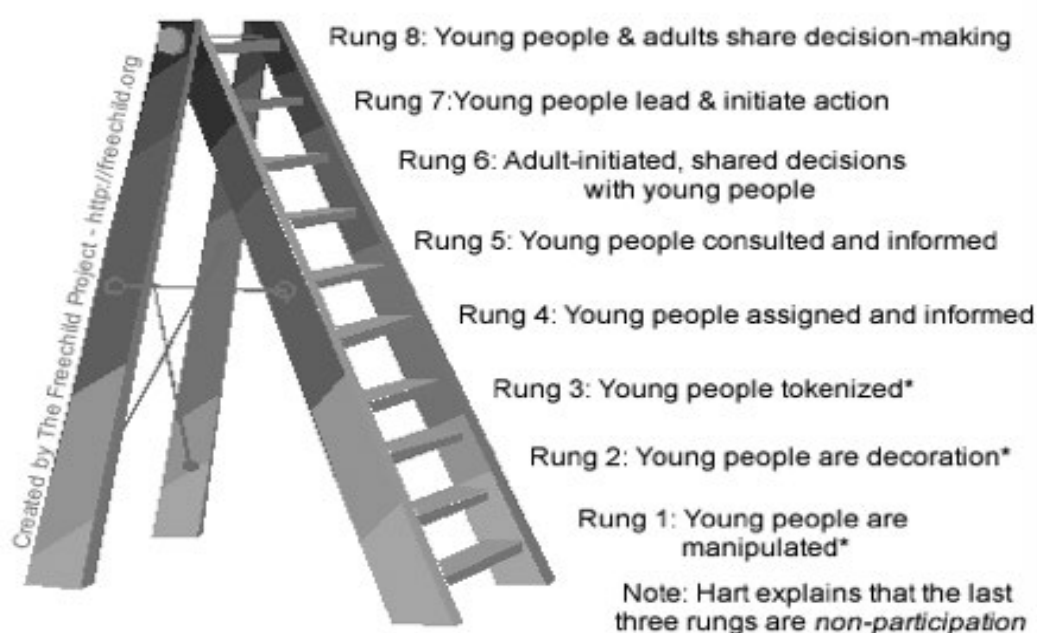
The chapter discusses the selected theory to investigate the factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. The capabilities approach has been selected to provide an individual-level analysis in the participation of youth in agricultural co-operatives. The chapter departs by defining citizen participation as a key conceptual framework that will be utilised to analyse the levels of youth participation.

3.2. Conceptual Framework – Citizen Participation

This study focuses on youth participation in agricultural co-operatives situated in the semi-rural areas of eThekweni. Young people between the ages of 15 to 35 form the bulge of South Africa's population and have been referred to as the youth bulge (Moultrie 2017). The African continent is experiencing a youth bulge which has been often blamed for increasing conflicts, protests, population growth, terrorism and organised crime (Lazar 2017; Strong 2018). Yet, little research has been conducted to understand why young people participate in specific socio-economic and political structures. Hence, this section seeks to define participation vis-à-vis youth citizens in agricultural co-operatives.

Citizen participation is a globally applied concept that has no unilateral definition and has been broadly defined by scholars, governments, non-government organisations and inter-governmental organisations. Arnstein's classic study provides a holistic definition of citizen participation by stating that "it is the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future" (Arnstein 1969, 216). Continuing Arnstein's tradition, Hart defines participation as a process of sharing decisions that affect one's life and the life of the community which one resides in (Hart 1997). Similarly, Van Deth defines participation as citizens' activities affecting socio-economic and political outcomes, where citizens evolve their capacities, articulate their demands, and legitimise their decisions (Van Deth 2015). Arnstein's definition of citizen participation resonates with the definition of agricultural co-operatives, whereby impoverished citizens with common socio-economic goals come together to improve their livelihoods while sharing the benefits of their labour.

Figure 3.1: Hart's Ladder of Young People's Participation



Source: Hart, R. (1992). Children's Participation from Tokenism to Citizenship

Hart (1992) identifies a typology of eight levels of young people's participation which have been adapted from Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation and have been illustrated in a ladder formation (see Figure 3). These levels of young people's participation range from young people being manipulated and decorated, to young people and adults sharing decision-making. Participation has commonly been viewed as either genuine or tokenistic, whereby these two views contrast reasons why citizens support participation and reasons why governments and organisations sponsor participation (Tesoriero 2010). These contrasting views have led to a critique of the concept and practice of participation in communities.

In a damning critique, Cooke and Kothari view participation as the new tyranny and identify three potential and real tyrannies of participation namely decision-making, the tyranny of group and tyranny of method (Cooke and Kothari 2001). The tyranny of decision-making recognises that those in control of decisions are the ones who often initiate and fund participation processes, the tyranny of group focuses on the treatment of community, local and grassroots groups as static and homogenous, and the tyranny of method states that the popular use of these participatory approaches may overshadow other contextually significant methodologies which may be appropriate to cultural sensitivities (Cooke and Kothari 2001; Maru, Alexandridis and

Perez 2009). These tyrannies lead to possibilities of unequal power dynamics between governments and organisations who often fund participation processes and ordinary citizens who often view participation as their fundamental basic human right in development processes.

Citizens often choose to participate in either formal or informal spaces of participation, which have been labelled invented and invited spaces of citizen participation (Miraftab 2004). Miraftab defines invited spaces as those “occupied by grassroots and allied non-governmental organisations (NGOs) that are legitimised by donors and government interventions” (Miraftab 2006: 195). Invented spaces are defined as “occupied by those collective actions by the poor that directly confront the authorities and challenge the status quo” (Miraftab 2006: 195). Invited spaces include citizen participation in NDP platforms organised and funded by the government. In contrast, invented spaces can include agricultural co-operatives formed by impoverished women in rural areas who are often marginalised and vulnerable to socio-economic shocks. However, as much as agricultural co-operatives begin as invented spaces of participation, they tend to be vulnerable to co-option by governments and funding agencies who inject capital and other resources, thereby converting these to invited spaces of citizen participation.

3.3. Theoretical framework – Capability Approach

The main theoretical framework that underpinned this study was the capability approach. The capability approach investigated the capabilities and functioning of agricultural co-operative members instead of the resources and utilities the agricultural co-operatives have. The study measured a person’s ability to achieve a given functioning, that is beings and doings that people value and have reason to value (Saith 2001). For example, people can value being in good health, being safe and being literate. By investigating the capabilities and functioning, the study will explore the co-operative’s role in contributing to human and social development rather than entirely focusing on economic outcomes.

Recent studies on agricultural co-operatives distinguish their success in reducing poverty and providing food security by measuring the resources available to meet the members’ basic needs. These resources, which are monetary indicators and non-monetary resources, include assets, access to health, education, water, electricity and roads. This resource-based approach to measuring the basic needs of the impoverished is attractive because it refrains from any potentially problematic value judgements (Alkire 2008). However, the resource-based approach to measuring the success of co-operatives is insufficient, as resources are not

intrinsically valuable and depend not on their existence but what they enable people to do and be (Alkire 2008). The critical factor is what people can achieve, given their various socio-economic circumstances and limited resources.

According to Sen, the capability approach to a person's advantage is concerned with evaluating it in terms of his or her actual ability to achieve various valuable functioning as a part of living (Sen, 1993). Sen also has noted that the possession of human capital not only means people produce more, and more efficiently; it also gives them the capability to engage more fruitfully and meaningfully with the world, and most importantly the capability to change the world (Sen, 1997). This perspective, which moves beyond human capital and focuses on human capabilities, critiques the debates that measure the sustainability of livelihoods by analysing the availability of resources.

Unlike the sustainable livelihoods approach, which focuses on the household as the unit of analysis, the capability approach acknowledges that an organisation can have internal inequalities in access to resources. It, therefore, regards the individual as the unit of analysis (Alkire 2008). However, the approach does not support ontological and methodological individualism; instead, it advocates for participation, democracy, deliberation and collective action (Alkire 2008). The study looks beyond what participants have in terms of resources, but rather what they can be able to do and achieve to improve their living standards.

The study utilised the seven (7) dimensions of human well-being advocated by the capability approach to measuring participants' capabilities in operating agricultural co-operatives, and factors that influence them from establishing agricultural co-operatives. These dimensions of human well-being include health and security, understanding, achievement, participation, relationships, satisfaction and harmony. The capability approach will manage to capture the well-being of agricultural co-operative members, which cannot be analysed using the basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach.

3.4. Conclusion

The chapter gave a broad understanding of the citizen participation concept, including other discourses on participation such as participation as tyranny and the invented/invited spaces of citizen participation. The chapter also discussed the capability approach as the main theoretical framework to be applied in analysing the co-operative members' participation. The chapter

also critically discussed the significance of the capability approach to analyse individual-level participation in comparison with the resource-based and sustainable livelihoods approaches.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses and explains the research methodology and research methods which have been adopted by this study. The chapter departs by explaining the research design, followed by the location of the study, sampling, data collection and data analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion on ethical considerations that apply mainly to the context of this study. These ethical considerations include the credibility, reliability and confirmability of the study, as well as transferability and dependability.

4.2. Research Design

Qualitative Research

The research methodology employed by this study is qualitative, which is framed by the constructivist paradigm with a phenomenological approach. The reason for the adaptation of a qualitative methodology is to document the achievements, failures and challenges faced by individual members of agricultural co-operatives. Burgess states that qualitative research allows us to learn about “the inner life of the person, his moral struggles, his successes and failures in securing this destiny in a world too often at variances with his hopes and dreams” (Shaw 1999). Creswell (2009) defines qualitative research as “an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explores a human or social problem. Patton (2002) defined qualitative research as attempting to understand the unique interactions in a particular setting. The qualitative methodology will complement the capability approach, which is proposed as the theoretical framework of this study. Field visits are useful to conduct multidimensional qualitative methods of collecting data such as questionnaires and interviews (Rallis and Rossman 2012). On-site field visits will also enable me to conduct observational research and collect data that may be withheld or omitted by the participants.

Ormston, et al. (2014) mention some common characteristics of qualitative research which include its use of non-standardised and adaptive methods of collecting data that are sensitive to the social context of the study and can be adapted for each case study or participant to explore emerging issues. Furthermore, qualitative research produces data that is detailed, rich and

complex (Ormston, et al. 2014). The complexity and richness of the data may once again vary from case study or participant. Qualitative data analysis tends to retain the complexity and nuances and respects the uniqueness of each case study or participant, as well as repetitive and cross-cutting themes (Ormston, et al. 2014). The data analysis of a qualitative study may reveal rich, complex and unique themes and findings that quantitative research may omit. Qualitative research is open to emergent theories and categories at the analysis and discussion of finding stages (Ormston, et al. 2014). Furthermore, qualitative research has a reflexive approach, where the role and perspective of the researcher in the research process are acknowledged (Ormston, et al. 2014).

Tracy (2012) utilises a phronetic approach to qualitative research that focuses on self-reflectivity and thick description. “This approach assumes that perception comes from a specific (self-reflexive) subject position and that the social and historical roots of an issue precede individual motivations and actions” (Tracy 2012:4). Through this approach, qualitative research produces several advantages as a research method. The strengths of qualitative research, under the lens of a phronetic approach, are that qualitative research is rich and holistic, focuses on lived experiences placed in their context, honours participants’ local meanings, and interprets participant viewpoints and stories (Tracy 2012). These strengths support this study’s aim to document agricultural co-operative members’ lived experiences in their context while honouring their local meaning of cooperation.

Constructivist Paradigm

This study seeks to document the lived experiences of respondents participating in agricultural co-operatives. This vision anticipates that respondents will have varying and unique understandings and experiences of agricultural co-operatives. Therefore, I have selected the constructivist paradigm to frame my research methodology and to guide and inform the data collection process. The constructivist paradigm has been selected in terms of its relativist ontology; which states that there are multiple realities which are socially constructed based on individual experiences (Guba and Lincoln 1994). The constructivists' paradigm also predominantly utilises qualitative methods of collecting data through interviews and observations (Mackenzie and Knipe 2006).

Creswell and Poth (2017) state that the constructivism paradigm presents a worldview where individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work; leading to a presentation of complex subjective meanings of the world that have been socially and

historically negotiated. The goal of the research leads to the researcher having to rely on multiple views and situations presented by participants (Creswell and Poth 2017). This paradigm advocate for open-ended questions where respondents can construct each situation and where the researcher can analyse the process of interaction among respondents (Creswell and Poth 2017). An interview guide guides data collection in this study with open-ended questions which are constructed based on the constructivist paradigm framework.

Phenomenological Approach

The nature of the topic of this study focuses on the factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. These factors are documented and observed by various individuals who participate in agricultural co-operatives. Therefore, the individuals share a similar phenomenon of being members who participate in agricultural co-operatives situated in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. Hence, the study calls for a phenomenological approach that will document the lived experiences of individuals in agricultural co-operatives situated in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. Creswell and Poth (2017) state that a phenomenological study explores the meaning of several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or phenomenon. In this case, the participation of young people in agricultural co-operatives constitutes a phenomenon that is worthy of exploration.

In a phenomenological study, the inquirer collects data from the individuals who have experienced the phenomenon, then develops a composite description of the essence of the experience for all the individuals (Creswell 2007; Creswell and Poth 2017). Essences serve as a structure for consciousness, and by blanketing the preconceived notions, the inquirer can describe the phenomena under study objectively (Byrne 2001). A phenomenological study often uses a method of inductive or qualitative methods of analysis such as interviewing and transcribing, followed by coding transcripts into emerging themes and drawing conclusions regarding the phenomena based on the emerging themes (Byrne 2001). This study's research methodology is based on these phenomenological methods of data collection and analysis, whereby a conclusion regarding the youth participation in agricultural co-operatives phenomena will be drawn based on the themes and findings that will emerge from the data.

4.3. Location of the Study

The research on agricultural co-operatives was conducted in eThekweni Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The socio-economic context of the study was on the agriculture

industry, focusing on youth participation in agricultural co-operatives within the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni, that are under the dual governance of both the municipality and traditional authorities or AmaKhosi. The rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni are located at the urban periphery of the Metro, with abundant land for agricultural activities. eThekweni is the only metropolitan municipality which is under dual governance, and this study's focus on agricultural co-operatives falling under land controlled by traditional authorities presents a unique contrast of youth participation in agriculture, which is in contestation with migration trends of young people in big cities in search for employment opportunities.

Dual Governance

The dual governance territory of eThekweni metropolitan municipality, which comprises of mostly land falling outside the Urban Development Line (UDL) (see Figure 2), falls part of South Africa's historical political and geographical dispensation. Those areas falling outside the UDL were referred to as Bantustans or Homelands under the Apartheid government. These areas were also self-governed by state-appointed Tribal Authorities (TA) which comprised of amaKhosi and Izinduna. Approximately 34,8% of eThekweni's municipal area is governed by both the municipality and traditional authority (Sutherland, et al. 2016). The former homelands were incorporated into the metropolitan during the 2000 municipal demarcations which saw the Durban Municipal Council expand by 68% to include land owned by the Ingonyama Trust Board (Sutherland, et al. 2016). Since then, the TAs continue to issue communal land to urban migrants under the Ingonyama Trust Board (ITB). The land is under the jurisdiction of Inkosi (traditional leader) and administered under the ITC. Land acquisition processes are traditional and are informed by customary practices and driven through social networks (Mbatha and Mchunu 2016).

A significant number of eThekweni residents are gradually migrating from urban areas to peri-urban and semi-rural areas falling outside the UDL. These areas under dual governance are often exempt from tariffs such as rates and taxes, zoning laws and building plans. However, the rapid migration of people from urban areas to peri-urban and semi-rural areas of eThekweni has placed a strain on municipal service delivery. EThekweni Municipality concurs that the dual governance system in the municipality affects the delivery of service to areas under ITB (eThekweni Municipality 2017). The affected services include water supply, sewage and electricity backlogs. The dual governance system also presents challenges in the development of rural areas or rural development. Since land tenure under the TAs is not formal and codified,

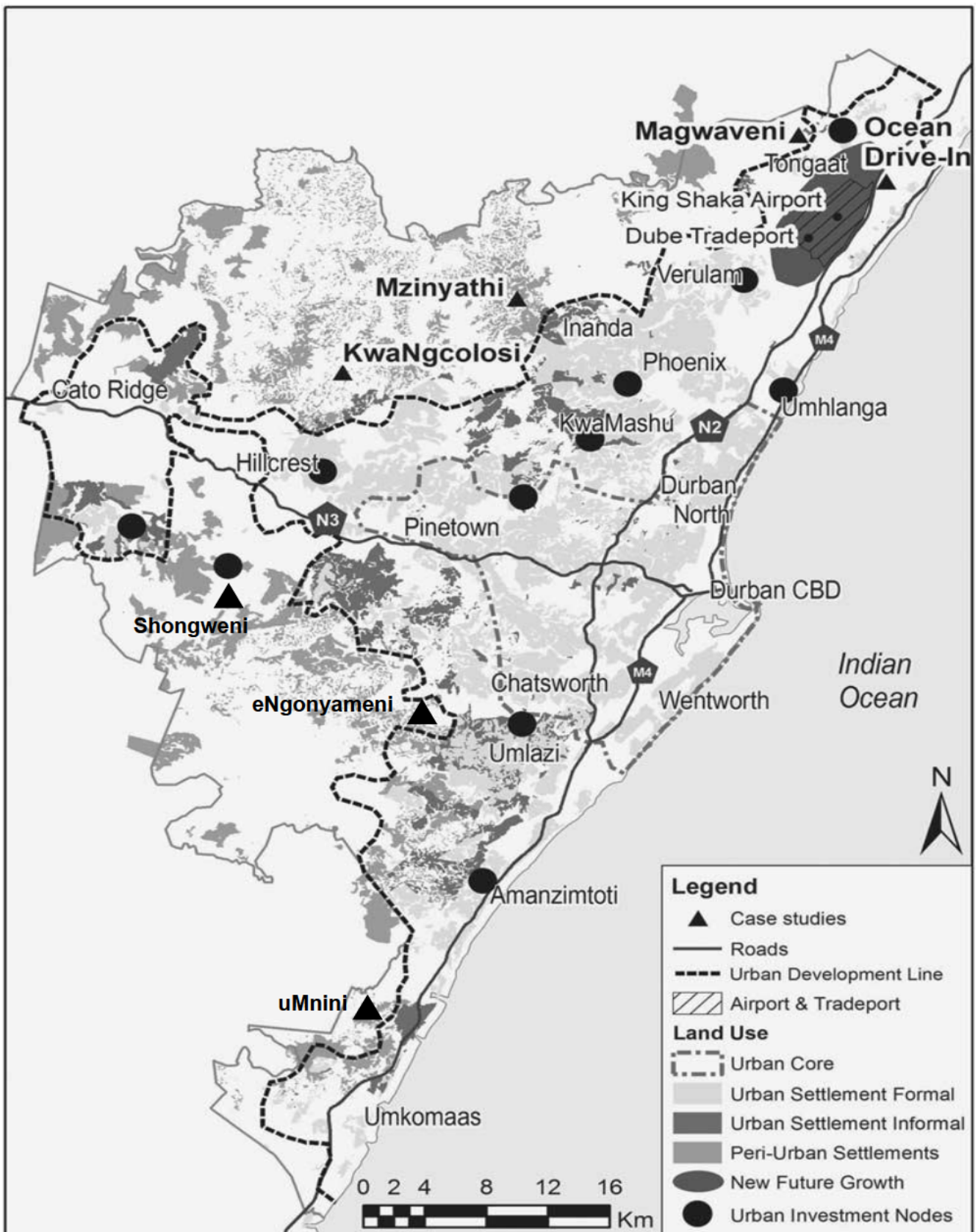
development planning under the municipal Spatial Development Framework (SDF) excludes all areas falling outside the UDL. This informal communal land tenure by the TAs “does not align with local government’s spatial development framework (SDF), or the formal planning system of the municipality” (Sutherland, et al. 2016: 4). Therefore, areas under dual governance are mostly side-lined by municipal planners and engineers in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP).

There are historical and current socio-economic and environmental factors underpinning spatial development in eThekweni (Sutherland and Lewis 2012). According to Sutherland and Lewis, these factors include:

“the under-development of townships and ex-homeland areas during apartheid; the steep topography of the periphery; the lack of planning for bulk infrastructure; the high cost of providing services to the periphery; the limitation of water-borne sewerage to the urban edge; significant environmental constraints, such as a shortage of water in the city and the steep terrain; and fiscal constraints which have resulted in the city developing a spatially differentiated model of service provision. (2012: 2)”

Furthermore, peri-urban areas and the rural periphery raise the most significant challenges due to land ownership falling under the Traditional Authority, low housing densities, mobility of the population and the inaccessible and steep terrain (Gounden, et al. 2006).

Figure 4.1: Map of eThekweni Municipality



Source: Sutherland et al. (2016) Social constructions of environmental services in a rapidly densifying peri-urban area under dual governance in Durban, South Africa', *Bothalia* 46(2), a2128

4.4. Sampling

The sampling selection process of this research had a primary focus on majority youth-owned agricultural co-operatives. The research intended on engaging with four (4) agricultural co-operatives and interview three (3) individual members per co-operative, resulting in twelve (12) individual participants. The purpose of choosing multiple case study co-operatives was to draw variable and rigorous comparisons of development journeys (Darke, Shanks and Broadbent 1998; Houghton, Casey and Shaw 2013). The four agricultural co-operatives were selected in terms of their youth membership size, as the study mostly focused on youth participation. Therefore, this study has employed a purposive sampling procedure. According to Patton (2015), purposive sampling is a strategy employed in qualitative research where participants are selected subjectively to provide information-rich cases within limited resources. The inquirer selects participants and locations for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Creswell 2007). Only agricultural co-operative members were selected for the study and had provided information-rich cases that have responded to the study's objectives.

4.5. Data Collection

Data collection using qualitative research methods involves various techniques such as interviewing, observation and audiovisuals. Collecting qualitative data involves “gathering and measuring information on variables of interest in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes” (Schurink, Fouché and De Vos 2011, 65). I have systematically gathered information regarding the lived experiences of young peoples' participation in agricultural co-operatives. This data collection method has involved interviews guided by questions formulated from the research objectives. In-depth interviews are the only way to collect data where it is imperative to relate different issues to individual personal circumstances (Ritchie, et al. 2013). Interviews provide in-depth data about respondents' viewpoint on a particular topic (Turner III 2010). Creswell and Poth (2017) identify several steps a researcher needs to undertake to conduct interviews in qualitative research studies; these steps include:

- Identifying interviewees based on the sampling strategy. In this study, interviewees have been identified using the purposive sampling strategy;

- Determine what type of interview is practical to capture information-rich cases. I have conducted one-on-one interviews with the respondents that have enabled me to capture in-depth information;
- Use adequate recording procedures when conducting one-on-one interviews. I have utilised a professional digital voice recorder to conduct one-on-one interviews with respondents;
- Design and use an interview protocol with approximately five open-ended questions, and spaces between questions to write responses and comments. I have designed an interview guide with adequate open-ended questions that respond to the objections of the study;
- Determine the place for conducting the interviews. I have visited the respondents in their locations where they conduct their agricultural activities. This method has allowed me to capture their lived experiences in their settings.
- After arriving at the site, obtain consent from the respondents by having them complete an informed consent form. I have prepared a consent form in both isiZulu and English, which have been presented to respondents to complete before conducting interviews.

Method to Collect Evidence

The research questions of this study have determined the methods to be employed when collecting data. Most of the questions have employed interviewing as a primary method to collect data from respondents. Secondary data has been utilised to corroborate information collected from key informants. The evidence needed and the method to collect evidence for the research questions posed was as follows:

Table 4.1: Methods to collect evidence

Question	Evidence needed	Method to collect evidence
What are young peoples' understanding of an agricultural co-operative and how it functions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants' understanding of the co-operative model and how it functions, including co-operative principles and values, the co-operative act of 2005, and the economic and social benefits of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with participants regarding the co-operative model and how it functions (including governance,

	<p>co-operatives for the members and the community.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic understanding of the agricultural co-operative compared to other types of co-operatives. 	<p>financial management, marketing and productivity)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation of internal governance and management structures
What are the factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-eminent factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. • Other factors that may influence the youth into participating in agricultural co-operatives. • Barriers in youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with participants regarding factors influencing the formation of agricultural co-operatives.
How do the existing governance structures support or hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability of information regarding co-operative registration, training, access to grants and business loans. • Effectiveness of capacity building and training initiatives by government. • Access to and conditions for monetary funding by government and the private sector for agricultural co-operatives. • Local, provincial and national networks for co-operatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with participants (about availability of information, effectiveness of training, and funding opportunities).
Can agricultural co-operatives contribute to youth employment creation and economic growth in eThekweni?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active youth-owned agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni municipality. • Employment created by youth-owned and operated agricultural co-operatives. • Sustainability of youth agricultural co-operatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with participants (about employment created, sustainability of co-operatives).

4.6. Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is a process whereby researchers extract some form of explanation, understanding or interpretation from the qualitative data collected of the people and situations, and by analysing data that was collected for the study (Maree 2010). This study's data was analysed using thematic data analysis. Thematic analysis is a method used in qualitative research to identify, analyse and derive themes and codes within data (Clarke and Braun 2013). Themes that emerge from the study have reflected the patterns and trends that will inform the findings and potentially answer the research questions.

The data collected through interviews and notes from observations were carefully analysed. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. The qualitative data collected throughout the research was analysed and coded using the NVivo software package (NVivo version 12). Collected data were analysed through coding methods, where themes and codes emerged from the trends and patterns in the data. Data were sorted and categorized according to observations made from the research (Bryman and Burgess 2002). The themes that emerged from the data were identified concerning the research objectives of the study (Clarke and Braun 2013). These themes have informed the findings which have also been analysed and discussed in concurrence with the literature review and theoretical framework of the study. These findings have been supported by evidence in the form of verbatim quotations from the analysed data. Verbatim quotations have been used as evidence displaying technique (Alhojailan 2012).

4.7. Ethical Considerations

The protection of human participants in any research study is of critical importance. Qualitative research is mostly conducted on the field, with real people who live and work in those settings. Therefore, these people are not anonymous to the researcher, and the researcher must ensure their right to privacy and confidentiality is protected. A researcher protects the anonymity of the respondents by assigning aliases or numbers to individuals (Creswell 2007). Confidentiality in research indicates that private data will not be reported, but rather the protection of participants' can be done by changing their names and identifying features (Kvale 1996). This research ensured that all ethical issues such as anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, voluntary participation, and the right to withdraw from the study adhered.

Respondents were taken through a brief outline of the study, which included the aim and research objectives. Respondents were also informed that their confidentiality and anonymity

would be ensured by using an alias in their responses. The right to withdraw at any time of the interview, including the right not to respond to any question they felt uncomfortable in answering was also explained to the respondents. The study was able to ensure anonymity by allocating aliases and using these aliases in the verbatim quotations provided in the data analysis chapter.

4.7.1 Credibility

Houghton et al. (2013) define credibility as the value and believability of the study based on the strategies of prolonged observation, triangulation, peer briefing, and member checking. Triangulation was employed in this study to ensure the credibility of the research. Triangulation in qualitative research refers to the use of multiple methods to collect data to develop a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon (Patton 1999; Carter, et al. 2014). Creswell and Miller (2000) define triangulation as a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple sources to form themes or categories in a study. It is a method of enhancing the credibility of the study by utilising multiple data sources to draw conclusions. The multiple data collection methods that were employed in this study included in-depth interviews, field notes and observations. The use of these multiple data collection methods ensured the credibility and trustworthiness of the research by overcoming any biases that may emerge from one-on-one engagements with the respondents.

4.7.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of the research findings when tested in similar conditions. Joppe defines reliability as “the extent to which the results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability if the results of the study can be produced under similar conditions, then the research is considered to be reliable” (Golafshani 2003: 598). Reliability can be challenging to achieve in qualitative research, especially when dealing with a human subject who often have various construction of meanings based on their lived experiences. A method of ensuring the reliability of a qualitative study is to keep an audit trail. An audit trail is determined and established by the researcher documenting the inquiry process through journaling and memoing, keeping a research log of all activities, developing a data collection chronology, and recording data analysis procedures (Creswell and Miller, 2000).

4.7.3. Confirmability

Heigham and Croker (2009) state that confirmability is a process whereby the researcher fully discloses and makes available all the data that they are basing their findings or interpretations on. This process ensures that the data from the research is based on the respondents' viewpoints and not the researcher's biased opinions. To achieve rigour in qualitative research, an audit trail is a strategy that can be used to access the trustworthiness of the study (Houghton, et al. 2013). The NVivo software can enhance rigour by keeping a comprehensive trail of all the decisions taken during the data analysis phase (Houghton, et al. 2013). Furthermore, reflexivity is another strategy to ensure confirmability in qualitative research. A researcher can record personal instincts, decisions made, and challenges experienced during the research in a reflective diary (Houghton, et al. 2013). In this regard, I have documented fieldwork findings, and have made available all the data collected, including recorded interviews and transcripts. I have used NVivo to analyse data thematically by developing themes and codes that emerged from the respondents' interviews.

4.7.4. Transferability

Transferability refers to how the finding of the study can be transferred to another setting or context (Houghton, et al. 2013). The researcher should provide thick descriptions and comprehensive details with verbatim quotations to allow the reader to determine whether the study can be transferred to a different context (Houghton, et al. 2013). This research has provided comprehensive details of the findings which were based on the respondents' viewpoints and lived experiences. Verbatim quotations from respondents were also provided in the data analysis. The research findings that emerged from this research could potentially be transferred to a similar setting.

4.7.5. Dependability

Dependability in qualitative research means that should the study be reported in detail, and then future researchers should be able to repeat the study and gain similar results (Shenton 2004). Dependability can be achieved by using overlapping methods of data collection, stepwise replications and inquiry audits (Houghton, et al. 2013). Therefore, the researcher should ensure that proper research practices were followed and recorded to help future researchers to repeat the study. This study has employed these strategies of ensuring the dependability of the research.

4.8. Methodological Challenges

A critical methodological challenge of this study was the location of young people who are members of agricultural co-operatives in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. I found that in several agricultural co-operatives approached in the study location, most young people who used to be members of the co-operative had either migrated to cities to look for employment or no longer took an interest in the co-operative. As a result, some members who became part of the study were no longer in the youth category. However, these members were from agricultural co-operatives that were over ten (10) years in existence and had joined when they were still within the youth category of 18 to 35 years.

Another methodological challenge was the number of youths in agricultural co-operatives to be interviewed. I had envisaged to interview three (3) young people in each co-operative, and to involve four (4) agricultural co-operatives, making the total number of respondents to twelve (12). However, due to the inability to locate existing agricultural co-operatives with those number of young people, I ended up interviewing ten (10) respondents from seven (7) co-operatives. Also, I opted to have a mix of well-established agricultural co-operatives which have been in existence for five years or more, newly established agricultural co-operatives with at least two years in existence, and an agricultural co-operative which is no longer existing. As a result, I was able to collect rich data from a diversity of agricultural co-operatives across different rural locations falling outside the eThekweni's urban development line.

4.9. Conclusion

The research methodology employed by this study is qualitative, which is framed by the constructivist paradigm with a narrative approach. This study seeks to document the lived experiences of respondents participating in agricultural co-operatives. The constructivism paradigm employed by the study presents a worldview where individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. The individuals share a similar phenomenon of being members who participate in agricultural co-operatives situated in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. Thus, a purposive sampling strategy has been employed by this study to select information-rich respondents. The data collection method has involved interviews guided by questions formulated from the research objectives. Data has been analysed thematically, and the themes that emerged from the coding procedure have informed the findings of this research.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected during this study. Thematic data analysis was employed to analyse the data. This process involved creating themes and sub-themes that reflect the patterns that emerged from the raw data collected from respondents participating in agricultural co-operatives. This study aimed to understand the factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives located in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. These factors that have emerged in the study either encourage or discourage youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. The study also sought to examine any governance support structures that either promote or hinder youth participation. These may include government and private support structures that offer information, training and funding. Since the study focuses on the individual as the unit of analysis, an understanding of co-operatives was a crucial component of this study. Hence, respondents were asked to provide their views on what a co-operative is and how it functions. The study then sought to understand how co-operatives could grow to create youth employment opportunities, thereby absorbing the unemployed youth into the work field. A total of ten (10) respondents were interviewed using an interview guide, and the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the data collected were as follows:

Table 5.1: Themes and sub-themes

THEMES	SUB-THEMES
Youth understanding of co-operatives	Youth definition of co-operatives
	Understanding of values and principles
	Socio-economic benefits
Factors encouraging youth participation	Passion for agriculture
	Being unemployed
	Being self-employed
	Working together
Factors hindering youth participation	Land tenure
	Basic services
	Infrastructure and equipment
	Access to information

	Access to funding
Support structures for agricultural co-ops	Government support
	Private sector support
	Training
	Markets and selling
Co-operative growth and sustainability	Attracting youth into agriculture
	Co-operative youth benefits
	Employment creation

5.2. Demographic Profile of Respondents

The research was conducted through interviews where ten (10) respondents were interviewed from 7 agricultural co-operatives located in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. To ensure the respondents' confidentiality is protected, the names have been omitted, and the respondents were coded for anonymity. The table below shows the demographic profile of the respondents:

Table 5.2: Demographic profile of respondents

	Age	Gender	Employment Status	Name of Co-operative	Year Joined	Location
Respondent 1	39	Female	Unemployed	Silwa Nobuphofu Co-op	2008	eNgonyameni
Respondent 2	38	Female	Unemployed	Silwa Nobuphofu Co-op	2008	eNgonyameni
Respondent 3	34	Female	Unemployed	Ezakhiweni Co-op	2010	Shongweni
Respondent 4	36	Male	Unemployed	Solomon's Wisdom Co-op	2013	Shongweni
Respondent 5	23	Female	Unemployed	Iphupho LamaQadi Co-op	2018	Mzinyathi
Respondent 6	37	Female	Unemployed	Inqolobane Yobumbano Co-op	2013	eSkebheni
Respondent 7	22	Male	Employed	Imbali Yesizwe Co-op	2016	eSkebheni
Respondent 8	32	Female	Unemployed	Isizukulwane Sokuqeda Indlala	2018	uMnini
Respondent 9	33	Female	Unemployed	Isizukulwane Sokuqeda Indlala	2018	uMnini
Respondent 10	31	Male	Employed	Isizukulwane Sokuqeda Indlala	2018	uMnini

Due to the methodological challenges which included the inability to recruit young people between the ages of 18 to 35, I opted to include respondents older than 35, and had to take into consideration whether they joined the co-operative when they were still within the youth age gap. Hence, 4 out of 10 respondents (40%) were above the age of 35 when they participated in

the study. However, all four participants were within the youth age gap when they joined and participated in the agricultural co-operative (see Table 2 - year joined). Most of the respondents who participated in the study were women, constituting seven (7) women out of 10 respondents (70%). These statistics re-affirms women's contributions in agriculture and rural economies in the developing world. However, much of these contributions are low paying activities and not considered as economically active employment; they are still essential to the well-being of rural livelihoods (Raney, et al. 2011). Only 2 participants (20%) were employed elsewhere at the time of the study. All seven (7) agricultural co-operatives are located in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni which are still under the dual governance of Traditional Authorities (TAs) and the eThekweni Municipality.

5.3. Youth understanding of co-operatives

The study focused on the individual as the unit of analysis, and thus aimed to determine the youth understanding of co-operatives. This included determining whether the youth who participate in co-operatives have any knowledge of the values and principles of co-operatives and whether they have knowledge of the social and economic benefits of co-operatives. The sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis process included youth definition of co-operatives, understanding of values and principles, and socio-economic benefits.

5.3.1. Youth definition of co-operatives

In response to a question which asked the respondents to share their views on what a co-operative is and how it functions, some of the responses were similar. This question was designed to determine whether the youth understands the co-operative organisations that they participate in. Some of the responses were as follows:

"A co-op is where you combine your views as a group with the intention of producing the same thing. However, in the end, there is that possibility that we all don't think alike, but you should be able to discuss and decide as a collective on what you want to do together." (Respondent 10)

"Um, my idea of a co-operative is when people with the same vision come together and work together. In our case, we are an agricultural co-operative, so all of our members have the same vision of producing food. So, our co-operative functions by all members playing a role in the production of food, and all receiving the same benefits." (Respondent 7)

“It’s coming together for a particular purpose. I think that’s the main idea behind a co-operative. You can’t form a co-op without any aim, goals, purpose or something in common. The common thing that we have among us is that we have land and we are all farmers. So, that’s what stands out among us, and we do not do any other thing. We are only farmers, and we are not employed anywhere else.” (Respondent 6)

Most respondents provided definitions that revolved around people coming together and working together. This also included having one vision or something in common in terms of production outputs. The notion of coming together, which is mentioned by these respondents, is synonymous with the ICA’s definition of co-operatives being an association of persons united to meet their socio-economic needs and aspirations (ICA 1995). Respondent 6’s response further stated that the common thing they had as individual farmers is the land, and they were able to join together to form an agricultural co-operative. This statement is synonymous with Cobia’s definition of agricultural production co-operatives where production resources such as land and machinery are pooled together and members farm and produces jointly (Cobia 1989).

5.3.2. Understanding of co-operative values and principles

In response to whether youth co-operative members had any knowledge of the values and principles of co-operatives, and whether these values and principles do apply in their agricultural co-operative, some respondents stated the following:

“Um, mostly people need to have morals and behaviour. People also need to work together and be able to make decisions as a unit. Also, a co-operative need to benefit not only the members of the co-operative but also the community. So, there’s a whole lot of community caring and cooperation among members.” (Respondent 7)

“Yes, these values work for us because even our Chairperson is someone who is always on our side and does not act like the type who is stubborn. We even contribute to the community through our organisation where we give food to the poor people.” (Respondent 1)

“What I know is that whatever you discuss as a group is not disclosed up until you as a group have made a final decision. We also abide by the rules that anyone can join if the members agree, and that everyone has the right to vote.” (Respondent 5)

Both Respondents 1 and 7 stated that their cooperative not only benefit members but also benefits their communities. This finding concurs with the ICA (1995) co-operative principle of

concern for the community. The practice of the ‘concern for community’ principle stated by these respondents is also similar to the cooperative ideology which motivates continued proactive participation in some rural Brazilian agricultural co-operatives (Cechin, et al. 2013). Respondent 5 also mentioned that membership is open and that every member has the right to vote, which is in line with the ICA (1995) principles of voluntary and open membership, and democratic member control. However, some respondents disagreed with Respondent 5’s open membership principle and stated:

“Right now, because we have gone through a long process of adding members and attending training, we no longer accept members. So, if someone joins now, they would want to steal our ideas. So, the principle that any member can join does not apply to us.” (Respondent 8)

“Um, I don’t have much knowledge about the principles of co-ops. What I know is that it’s difficult to allow other people to join on a later stage in the co-op.” (Respondent 9)

Respondents 8 and 9 stated that the principle of open membership is difficult to grasp and does not apply to their agricultural co-operative. As much as their co-operative is still in its infancy, these respondents felt that they had invested too much in their organisation, and having additional members joining at a later stage would not be conducive for their agricultural co-operative.

5.3.3. Socio-economic benefits

Co-operatives play an essential role in community economic development, which includes poverty reduction, social cohesion and employment creation, as witnessed in countries such as Brazil and Uganda (Peres, et al. 2010; Kwapong 2013). During the research, respondents were asked to mention some of the social and economic benefits of co-operatives. The significance of this question was to determine whether respondents understand the impact co-operatives have on society. Some of the responses were as follows:

“Um, I think that co-ops do benefit a lot of people, like now our aim was for our co-op to benefit the community, including older people who cannot afford to buy expensive vegetables from the shops. Our organic vegetables could also assist in terms of promoting healthy food and allow people to live a healthy lifestyle.” (Respondent 5)

What I can say is the community benefits through the co-op, especially those who are powerless like the elderly and poor people. They benefit a lot from our agricultural produce. In fact, what I

can say is that the community benefits from us because they get everything like meat and vegetables close to us and so on.” (Respondent 1)

Eh, people or the community can benefit by buying fresh produce from us locally instead of going to expensive supermarkets far away, and we produce organic vegetables.” (Respondent 8)

Respondents 1, 5 and 8 stated that co-operatives benefit the community by providing a cheaper local market where community members can access. These findings suggested that one of the socio-economic benefits of co-operatives is their ability to contribute to local economic development (LED). Khumalo (2014) also concurs that co-operatives in South Africa are a crucial vehicle for LED, thereby improving the livelihoods of disadvantaged people.

Other respondents emphasised the importance of co-operatives in creating employment and stated the following:

“I think that the benefits of co-ops, looking at us and the youth who are unemployed, co-ops can be able to create employment and young people can work instead of sitting on the streets.” (Respondent 9)

“In terms of economic benefits, you have young people being employed, and you have poverty slowing because people can support their families. You have more opinions as well, so you have more knowledge basically. You have the business growing, so you have more sales as well.” (Respondent 7)

Respondents 7 and 9 stated that co-operatives could create employment opportunities for young people. Respondent 7 further stated that through employment creation, poverty decreases because people can support their families. This finding resonated with literature from Karnani (2011), who stressed that generating employment is one of the major thrusts towards poverty reduction.

5.4. Factors encouraging youth participation

The main focus of this study was to understand the factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. These factors are to be underpinned by the capability approach theoretical framework which evaluates the individual’s ability to achieve valuable functioning as part of living, through the possession of human capital (Sen 1999). Various factors that encourage youth participation in agricultural co-operatives emerged as sub-themes during data

analysis. The cross-cutting factors that emerged were having a passion for agriculture, being unemployed, being self-employed, and working together.

5.4.1. Passion for agriculture

This study surprisingly revealed that some young people have a passion for agriculture. Despite the ‘youth and agriculture problem’ in South Africa (Swarts and Aliber 2013), where young black people in South Africa are perceived as not choosing agriculture as a profession or as a livelihood strategy (Mathivha 2012). Therefore, passion for agriculture emerged as a sub-theme when participants were asked what influenced them to participate in an agricultural co-operative. Some respondents provided the following narratives:

“These women saw me and my vegetable garden at my yard and they asked me to join them if I wanted to. Since I was not working, I decided to join their co-operative. It’s nice to do something with others out of passion and that patience is important because you can end up having an income, and you have something to eat instead of going out to buy stuff.” (Respondent 2)

Um, the second part to it is that I personally love working with the earth and feeling the energy and so on... but that’s a personal issue.” (Respondent 7)

“It’s not about picking up a hoe and working the land. There are some of us who have a passion for being out in the field, while some would prefer to hire people to do the hard labour, and some would even prefer to process vegetables.” (Respondent 10)

Respondents 2, 7 and 10 stated that what influenced them to participate in agricultural co-operatives was their passion for agriculture. Other respondents (Respondent 5 and 6) also stated that their love for agriculture encouraged them to participate in an agricultural co-operative. This finding is synonymous to an empirical study into youth attitudes and expectations of agricultural careers in South Africa which found that a third of the youth who participated in the study expressed clear interest and passion for agriculture (Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs 2019).

Despite these respondents’ passion for agriculture, in their latter narratives, they did not think other young people share the same sentiment for agriculture. Some of the respondents stated the following:

“Ey, young people are lazy. They are always complaining that it’s too hot and they wouldn’t survive working in the heat.” (Respondent 2)

“One of the issues we have in our community is that the youth is generally not interested in agriculture, and you ask the question how they can be interested in agriculture.” (Respondent 7)

“Even though the government encourages young people to participate into agriculture, the youth does not want to participate. Even us, we were taught by old people on how to plough, but the younger generation now is not interested.” (Respondent 4)

Respondents 2, 4 and 7 stated that young people are generally not interested in agriculture and do not participate in agricultural activities. These findings contradicted the empirical study by Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs (2019), which looks at young people’s behaviour and attitudes towards agriculture.

5.4.2. Being unemployed

Being unemployed emerged as a common finding among some respondents who participated in the study. According to the theoretical framework underpinning this study – the capability approach, being unemployed can be viewed as a functioning which represents parts of the state of a person. As a result, the capability of a person reflects the alternative functioning the person can achieve to improve the quality of life (Sen 1993). In this case, being unemployed prompted respondents to participate in agricultural co-operative to become employed and earn a living, and this was evident in the respondents’ narratives:

“I joined the co-operative because we don’t have employment opportunities and we are sitting at home doing nothing. You spend the whole day going to firms and looking for employment, and at the end of the day you don’t even get any employment.” (Respondent 8)

“I wanted to be active since employment opportunities at the time were very scarce, they are even scarce as we speak... What I wish for young people to see, especially those sitting at home not working, is that an organisation like a co-operative can work and one day you can end up benefiting.” (Respondent 1)

“Uh, it’s because I was doing nothing at home and I was not employed. Then I decided to join these women who were working as part of a co-op in the community. I decided to also work with them so that I can bring at least something at home.” (Respondent 2)

Respondents 1, 2 and 8 stated that what influenced them to join an agricultural co-operative was because they were sitting at home and not employed. This finding confirmed the persistent

youth unemployment which has been one of the pressing socio-economic problems in South Africa due to a lack of networks and information for job opportunities, as well as financial resources and mobility to seek for work (Yù 2013).

5.4.3. Being self-employed

Another factor which influenced respondents to participate in agricultural co-operatives was being self-employed. Being self-employed emerged as a sub-theme which can be interpreted as a functioning which prompted some respondents to establish agricultural co-operatives. Some respondents mentioned self-employment as a factor that influenced them from participating in agricultural co-operatives, and they stated the following:

“What influenced me, as I said before, was that I was sitting at home doing nothing, and I don’t like to work for someone else. So, that’s what gave me pressure to join this co-op. Also, I like being in business, and I enjoy being self-employed.” (Respondent 3)

“I think most of the time when people live, their situations and standards of living are not the same. Even though the government always says that co-ops are another way of improving people’s lives, it’s the same as “ukuxo’shindlala” (eradicating hunger). So, don’t just stay at home and do nothing just because there are no employment opportunities. Try to join other people in your community and become self-employed, so you can be able to improve your life.” (Respondent 4)

“So, the co-op allows us to work together and enable us to be self-employed and be independent. Also, for people who come after us to see that it’s possible to create employment and be independent.” (Respondent 5)

The above narratives from Respondents 3, 4 and 5 indicated that being self-employed was a functioning that provided the corresponding capability of participating in agricultural co-operatives and become independent. Respondent 4’s latter statement indicated that being self-employed enables one to improve their life. Through the capability approach lens, being self-employed and being independent is a functioning relevant for human well-being, others, including being happy and achieving self-respect (Sen 1993). The corresponding capability to achieve this valuable functioning was the mobilisation and utilisation of human capital by respondents to establish or join agricultural co-operatives. This finding also concurs with a study by Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs (2019). They found that some young people had entrepreneurial aspirations and wanted to start their businesses in the field of agriculture.

5.4.4. Working together

Working together emerged as a sub-theme during the data analysis process. Some respondents stressed the importance of working together and building trust, which can be classified as social capital. Putnam (2000) states that social cohesion, social networks, norms and trust of civic engagement make up the pillars of social capital. Once trust is established in communities, then people start working together to improve their quality of life (Kay 2005). When asked what factors influenced youth participation in agricultural co-operatives, some respondents stated the following:

“Coming together with other young people, we decided to form a co-op with the intention to go back to farming, but we are coming together with different knowledge, however when we combine our knowledge, we are able to come with a common vision and way of working together.”
(Respondent 10)

“Um, the other main thing that made me join was working together as Black people. You don’t see much of that in society. I mean it’s a good chance to set an example for the kids and the generation that comes after, or even for the people that are already established, maybe they can work together as well. I’m talking in terms of agriculture and in terms of business. If people started working together you’d see more change, you’d see more unity, especially in the black communities where people do their own things.” (Respondent 7)

“What I can say is, it’s important if you have united to work together in anything involving the community, there should be humility. Eh, in most of the time you should be able to sit down and discuss matters. If there are issues where you don’t see eye to eye, you should be able to resolve them, so the wheel keeps on turning. That’s the most important thing, “ubuntu”. So, if there is humility, people will always be united, and be able to move forward.” (Respondent 4)

Working together was a common pattern found in Respondents 4, 7 and 10. Other respondents (Respondent 1 and 5) also mentioned that working together was an influential factor which made them participate in agricultural co-operatives. Working together with people who have a shared vision is a finding that resonates with a study by Kay (2005:165), who emphasises that “social contacts are made through networks; people then tend to work with others and organizations who share the same values (norms of behaviour and sense of belonging/commitment); this may then lead on to working together”. This finding also

highlighted the ability of co-operatives to enhance social cohesiveness and cooperative spirit (Kasabov 2016). Hence, social capital is also defined as one's ability to create and grow voluntary associations (Portes and Landolt 1996), and co-operatives are, by nature, defined as voluntary associations.

Despite some respondents expressing that working together was a positive influence in participating in agricultural co-operatives, some respondents mentioned some challenges in people working together and stated the following:

"You see, people can't work together, that's the stumbling block. A person will come and say that they will manage the whole garden alone, and then they fail, and then when you fail you don't want to move out so that another person can try. At least if there was something like that which says that if a person fails after two or three years, then they must move out, so another person can use that land and produce." (Respondent 6)

"There are always barriers when you establish something with a lot of people with different ideas. Every person comes with different ideas on what to do and how. You find out that those ideas cannot be turned into a single vision, and sometimes you have to hold at least three meetings." (Respondent 8)

Respondent 6 stated that people could not work together and often work in isolation which leads to failure. Meanwhile, Respondent 8 mentioned that there are barriers in working together with people that have different ideas, leading to difficulties in converting those ideas into a single vision, and also delays. This finding highlighted that some factors hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

5.5. Factors hindering youth participation

Part of the factors that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives were those that hinder rather than encourage youth participation. Therefore, I decided to classify factors that encourage and factors that hinder youth participation. Hindering factors that emerged from the data analysis process were land tenure, basic services, access to information, lack of funding, infrastructure and equipment.

5.5.1. Land tenure

The location of the study was the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni municipality which are under the dual governance of the municipality and Traditional Authorities. This location is

mostly still under customary law, and land tenure is informal. The land is under the jurisdiction of Inkosi (traditional leader) and administered under the Ingonyama Trust Board. Land acquisition processes are traditional and are informed by customary practices and driven through social networks (Mbatha and Mchunu 2016). Hence, it was interesting to see how land tenure affects youth participation in more formal structures such as agricultural co-operatives. Land tenure emerged as a sub-theme, and some respondents provided the following narratives:

“There is another piece of land that we have identified. Some of our members approached a lady who agreed to give us a piece of land to use. What will be important is to get the lease under iNkosi, because that’s how you can secure land in this area. It would be good if we get the lease under the name of the co-op so that we can avoid any conflicts or claims to the land.” (Respondent 3)

“Being a farmer is so hard because we don’t have access to money. What they ask you when you apply is if the land is yours, and they also ask if you have water rights. Now my land is under Ingonyama Trust, so it becomes a problem, they want the lease, but they still complain that you do not own the land, that’s what the Land Bank said to us. We approached them in 2009 and they asked to see permission to use the land, so we went around to Induna up until we got a lease from Ingonyama Trust. We took the lease to Land Bank, then they asked us how they can invest in us when we don’t have the title deed.” (Respondent 6)

Respondent 3 stated that her co-operative would have to secure a lease under Inkosi to be able to secure land tenure. Respondent 6 also revealed that her land is under Ingonyama Trust, and this creates challenges when applying for finance with banks. Banks do not recognise ITC leases as legal rights of land ownership and collateral and prefer the land to be privately owned with a title deed as a legal ownership document. The land is the most widely accepted collateral in agricultural lending. Still, there are often problems with ownership and title rights, which makes formal financial institution lending to emerging co-operatives challenging (Qwabe 2014). Hence, insecure land tenure could affect the growth and development of agricultural co-operatives in rural eThekweni through access to finance restrictions.

Another respondent who established an agricultural co-operative because he had access to land provided the following narrative:

“I decided to register a co-op because my family has land back at home. Then I realised that agriculture is our inheritance as Black people who grew up in the rural areas. Let us go back and work the land. What encouraged me a lot was the inheritance of a Black African that will never end

and that can be passed through generations... Eh, the land belonged to my grandfather, and we grew up in that land. Then we asked our uncles to use the land.” (Respondent 10)

Respondent 10 stated that what encouraged him to establish an agricultural co-operative was that he had access to land which belonged to his family. However, this land is still under dual governance, and the respondent faced the same land tenure challenges as Respondents 3 and 6.

One participant discussed how insecure land tenure led to conflicts over the land that their agricultural co-operative was occupying. The respondent provided the following lived experience:

“Ok, the land belongs... Let me not mention the names. The land belongs to the people who gave us permission to use it. Only to find out that the land we got permission for is under iNkosi, and there were other people who wanted us out of that land without permission for the people who gave us the land. Those people who wanted us out ended up destroying our vegetable gardens and produce. They did not even give us a warning to move out or call us for a meeting, they just destroyed everything. They did not come to discuss anything, they were even violent because one of our members was beaten up and was badly injured. We also reported to the people that gave us the land that our property and vegetable produce were destroyed, and we are waiting for them to make a decision because the land belongs to them... We are not operating for now as we are waiting on the solution from the people who gave us the land.” (Respondent 5)

Respondent 5 provided an account where the land her agricultural co-operative was occupying was acquired through a third party and not directly from Inkosi. There was a conflict over the land with other community members who wanted the co-operative to vacate the land. As a result, the co-operative’s property and produce were destroyed, leaving the co-operative non-operational. There are complexities over land tenure in rural areas of eThekweni under dual governance (Mbatha and Mchunu 2016), and they influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Other factors that have a negative influence included the provision or lack of essential services such as water.

5.5.2. Basic services

Basic services such as lack of water emerged as a factor hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. The rapid migration of people from urban areas to peri-urban and semi-rural areas of eThekweni has placed a strain on municipal service delivery. EThekweni Municipality concurs that the dual governance system in the municipality affects the delivery

of service to areas under ITB (eThekweni Municipality 2017). The affected services include water supply, sewage and electricity backlogs. Respondents stated the following regarding the lack of essential services:

“Also, what I can point out that is very important is water. Right now we don’t have water, we have to carry water on our heads from the river so we can water our gardens and provide some chickens with water... Especially the shortage of water, we cannot properly operate because of water shortages, because we have a problem in the vegetable gardens, we cannot work in a feasible way that will increase our income because of water shortages we are facing. Water is one of the biggest challenges we are facing as we end up planting what we haven’t planned for because we are running away of produce that requires a lot of water. Some members are old, and they cannot travel long distances to fetch water from the river. You water the garden, and in a few minutes it’s dry again, the plants die, and you end up losing money.” (Respondent 1)

“Also, there is no water to water our gardens, and plants need to be watered in the morning and afternoon. So, you find that there is no water for plants to grow and become the quality that we want... We told them about our water issues, and they came to install that borehole where you have to pump the water, but there is no water. Most of our members are too old and they cannot pump water out of that borehole.” (Respondent 3)

“We are facing a challenge in our farm because there is no water, and we are trying to come up with a plan on how we can get access to water. The area we are based in is not developed at all, and there is no water, which will now affect the quality of our produce, because the produce needs to be tested for quality and must pass.” (Respondent 10)

Respondents 1, 3 and 10 reported that the lack of water presents a significant challenge which is impacting on their agricultural production outcomes. This finding regarding the lack of water reflected the historical and current socio-economic and environmental factors underpinning spatial development in eThekweni (Sutherland and Lewis 2012). Peri-urban areas and the rural periphery raise the most significant challenges due to land ownership falling under the Traditional Authority, low housing densities, mobility of the population and the inaccessible and steep terrain (Gounden, et al. 2006). Some of the factors mentioned by Sutherland and Lewis (2012) which are synonymous to the finding of the study were significant environmental constraints, such as a shortage of water in the city and the steep terrain; and fiscal constraints to pursue bulk infrastructure projects. Hence, the lack of water in these dual governance areas persists and continues to hinder the growth and development of agricultural co-operatives.

5.5.3. Infrastructure and equipment

The lack of infrastructure and equipment emerged as another factor that hinders youth participation in agricultural co-operatives, as the unavailability of infrastructure and equipment impacts the growth and development of co-operatives, and their ability to create employment opportunities. Respondents had the following to say regarding the lack of infrastructure and equipment:

“Uhm, it’s been the area where we operate, it’s not fenced so sometimes when we are not on site, we find that animals barge in and eat or destroy our vegetables... Uh, the challenge is not having tools to work, we don’t have tools to work the gardens... Even though these water cans, you cannot do anything with them if you don’t have water, but if there were water, then they would be helpful.”
(Respondent 2)

“We’ve just started planting and we were just building a profile, so we can have pictures to show when we look for funding. We don’t even have tools, we use tools from home. Even the money for seeds came from our own pockets.” (Respondent 5)

“Right now, we have to farm using 2 hectares only out of 6 hectors because we don’t have enough seeds to cover all the land we have. So, if we can get sponsors, then we can get some equipment and buy some seeds and farm.” (Respondent 8)

Respondent 2 stated that there is a lack of infrastructure such as fencing which leads to the destruction of agricultural produce. Respondent 5 stated that their agricultural co-operative does not have any tools, and they even purchase seeds from their own funds. Respondent 8 stated that the lack of equipment and seeds is hindering her co-operative from expanding and cultivating more available land. Unlike in countries such as Uganda where the youth is encouraged to participate in agricultural co-operatives to have access to equipment (Flink, Vaast and Jacobs 2018), the lack of equipment in some co-operatives in rural eThekwinini hindered their productivity and growth, thus impacting youth participation.

5.5.4. Access to information

Access to information emerged as a sub-theme during the data analysis process. The provision of information for rural agricultural co-operatives plays an essential role in their growth and development. As such, one of the DTI’s objective in their cooperative strategy is to strengthen co-operative sustainability, through the provision of access to information, access to markets, business development support services (DTI 2012). When respondents were asked whether

they have access to information regarding co-operative funding, training or grants, their responses were as follows:

“No, it was easy to get the information before, but now it is not. What I can say is that DSD told us that they will no longer fund us.” (Respondent 1)

“No, that information is not available to us. It’s not easy in my point of view because they come and make promises. When they come, we tell them that we are short of this and that, they promise that they will supply us with those things, and that’s how it ends up. Since I’ve been here, there has been nothing that they’ve assisted us with.” (Respondent 3)

“What I can say is that it’s not easy to get information, but we are fortunate because we are under Umgibe and they provide us with all the information about trainings and funding.” (Respondent 9)

Respondents 1, 3 and 9 stated that it was not easy to access co-operative information on training and funding opportunities. Respondents 1 and 3 also stated that they no longer receive any assistance from government entities, while Respondent 9 state that their agricultural co-operative is fortunate because it is affiliated with Umgibe Foundation who provides them with information regarding training and funding. Another respondent who also has access to information through a third party stated the following:

“You know, as I explained before that Agri Hub was the only person able to assist us with information regarding workshops and funding... Yes, if anything came up, they were able to contact us. If there was a workshop anywhere, the lady that worked there was hardworking and was able to inform us. We were invited to the City Hall, where the Mayor addresses small-scale farmers.”(Respondent 4)

Respondent 4 revealed that his co-operative receives information from Agri Hub, which is a municipal agency assisting small-scale farmers and co-operatives in eThekwin. There was one respondent who stated that in today’s world, it was relatively easy to have access to information. This respondent provided the following narrative:

“Yes, I mean today we have the Internet. Whatever you do, it’s on the computer or phone. So, you search online for grants, you search online for your training. Um, and as a co-operative sometimes you could go to Agriculture officials’ offices and request whatever you need, and usually those people come to you and offer you training.” (Respondent 7)

Respondent 7 stated that access to information was made easy by the Internet, and information regarding funding and training was readily available. Also, co-operatives could visit the offices of government departments to seek for information regarding training and grants.

5.5.5. Access to funding

Access to funding for agricultural co-operatives emerged as a sub-theme. Funding for co-operatives in the rural periphery is vital since there is a lack of infrastructure contributed by high levels of income inequalities. The Finance and Fiscal Commission (2016) stated that rural areas have low economic activities and a narrow tax base and are unable to fund infrastructure development. Co-operatives not only require funding for a start-up but also for growth and expansion, and several co-operatives end up using their financial contributions as start-up capital (Tshabalala 2013). When asked whether their co-operative has received any type of funding, respondents replied with the following:

“As I said before, if you have knowledge of getting funding from the government. Our co-op has not received any funding so far, besides that little assistance of a tractor and some manure.”
(Respondent 3)

“No, we haven’t received any form of funding... We’ve remained confident even without the funding, because we all have a vision to succeed one day... Another challenge has been the lack of funding for us to move forward. No one is working among us, so we struggle to go places to look for funding. We don’t even have tools, we use tools from home. Even the money for seeds came from our own pockets.” (Respondent 5)

“I don’t want to lie, we have not received any funding. Right now, we are handling things on our own, we have to farm and also fence our farm from our own pockets. The lack of funding has really delayed us, and we would have been far by now if we had some money, because we are ready to begin farming... I still have pressure that there are a lot of members who are unemployed in our co-op. That’s a challenge to me because there are times after I get paid from work that I have to pay for the expenses of the co-op, such as trainings.” (Respondent 10)

Respondents 3, 5 and 10 stated that the lack of access to funding had been a significant challenge for their agricultural co-operatives. As a result, Respondent 5 and 10 further stated that they had to use their financial contributions to fund co-operative overheads and to purchase seeds. This finding concurs with a study by (Tshabalala 2013) who found that youth co-operatives in the North West province often used their own contributions as capital for start-up or expansion.

Other respondents stated that their agricultural co-operative had received either financial or in-kind funding from the government. These respondents provided the following narratives:

“The municipality assisted us with funding for fencing our gardens, and we get our water from the old river stream. The municipality also provided us with fish to start fish farming. Then there was that R28000 grant that was given to us by government. However, regarding the R28000 grant information, we went directly to the local municipality, and we were able to receive it. They also sent out some of their officials to inspect how we operate.” (Respondent 4)

“Yes, if the extension officer and the department decide to give us that in-kind funding like seeds, then they give us, but not regularly. We received a grant in 2014 and it lasted for two years. We were able to purchase a tractor that all of our farmers currently use... You see, if you give a farmer a plot of land that is fenced and has irrigation, what else could you provide them. We tried to save from that grant so that we could have some input costs, and we carried on farming.” (Respondent 6)

Respondents 4 and 6 stated that they had received funding from the government, and the funding had influenced the participation of young people in their co-operatives. Respondent 6 further stated that their secondary co-operative was able to purchase a tractor that is being used by primary co-operatives falling under them. The findings on access to finance for agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni further reveal the dependence on government funding, which differs from findings in other African countries such as Kenya where co-operatives access funding through SACCOs such as the Cooperative Bank of Kenya (Wanyama 2016).

5.6. Support structures for agricultural co-operatives

The study sought to examine existing governance support structures that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. As a result, support structures for agricultural co-operatives became a theme, and several sub-themes thus emerged during the data analysis process. Government support emerged as an overarching sub-theme, and as previously discussed, agricultural co-operatives who took part in the study heavily relied on the government for access to information and funding. Other sub-themes that emerged were private sector support, capacity building and training, markets and selling.

5.6.1. Government support

Most respondents stated that the support that their agricultural co-operative had received came from government departments and government agencies. The type of support varied from financial assistance to in-kind assistance such as fencing and the provision of seeds. Tshabalala (2013) found that there are insignificant government funding and financial support for co-operatives and that the lack of government funding is inhibiting production and growth for co-operatives. Respondents had the following to say regarding government support:

“Silwanobuphofu was initially funded by the Department of Social Development... For now, we were waiting for the Department of Agriculture as they promised us infrastructure for poultry. So, we are waiting for them to build us the structures that they promised to build, because they mentioned that already there are funds allocated to build. However, it won't be cash like DSD, it will be in-kind because they came to open a site for the three poultry structures that they're going to build.” (Respondent 1)

“We do have an extension officer from the Department of Agriculture. So, they sometimes let us know if there is anything available. Right now, they provided us with beans, but it's not in our plan, it's their plan, but we accept it and plant it.” (Respondent 3)

“We had various vegetables in our garden, because we were working with Agri Hub here in Marianridge... What I can say is, we received any information from the government via Agri Hub... The municipality only came to fence our area, as you have seen how our gardens have been fenced. The container and the fishes were also supplied to us by the municipality.” (Respondent 4)

Respondents 1, 3 and 4 expressed that much of the support that their agricultural co-operatives received was from government departments such as the Department of Agriculture and Department of Social Development. Respondent 4 stated that they received assistance from the eThekweni municipality, and they also liaise with Agri Hub, which is a government agency assisting smallholder farmers and emerging co-operatives. The Department of Agriculture emerged as the government entity providing the most support for other respondents, and their support ranged from access to finance, the provision of seeds and manure, and the provision of training. The responsibilities of co-operatives have been transferred from the Department of Agriculture to the DTI, and the DTI has promised to strengthen co-operative sustainability, through the provision of access to information, access to markets, business development support services, business infrastructure and institutional finance (DTI 2012). However, this

objective is still not visible at grassroots levels, as most assistance observed in this finding points to the Department of Agriculture. Respondent 3 stated that they received beans from the Department of Agriculture as a form of assistance, although it was not in their co-operative's plans to plant beans. However, they accepted the assistance and planted the beans. This finding revealed the state of government assistance as threatening the autonomous production nature of co-operatives.

5.6.2. Private sector support

Some respondents who took part in the study admitted that their agricultural co-operatives sometimes receive assistance from private organisations not linked to the government. These private organisations provide training and support and also link co-operatives with available markets to sell their products. The responses from these respondents were as follows:

“Lima has assisted us with finding a market at Spar. We also get a lot of support from the community. We sell some of our vegetables to school teachers in nearby schools, and we also sell to clinic patients. So, the market is there a bit, and its better now since Lima has found us a market at Spar.” (Respondent 3)

“We really found assistance from Umgibe and found what we were looking. The woman from Umgibe who was training us, she is the one helping us look for markets and taking orders on our behalf. So, we have that agreement with her.” (Respondent 8)

“We also got training on how to use chemicals, but that was provided by Beyer who provides us with the chemicals.” (Respondent 6)

Private organisations such as Umgibe Farming, Lima and Beyer Chemicals were mentioned by Respondents 3, 6 and 8 as organisations that have assisted their agricultural co-operatives. However, some of this assistance was not free, as these agricultural co-operatives had to pay for some services from their own funds. One respondent stated the following regarding paying for services:

“We are still busy with training with Umgibe, and we will also do training on food processing. You see, we are affected by these trainings because you have to pay for them, and most of our members are not working, but we tried to make a decision that whoever is able to pay must pay, they will be compensated later.” (Respondent 10)

Respondent 10 revealed that their agricultural co-operative has had to pay for the training they have received from Umgibe. As one of the members who is employed elsewhere, he had to organise funds to pay for the training from his personal income. These transactions add more financial strain on already struggling agricultural co-operatives in the eThekweni region. However, private sector services have shown to be effective in accessing markets, thus leading to growth and possibly influencing more youth participation. Tshabalala (2013) also argues that a favourable environment needs to be created for co-operatives to interact with the private sector to ensure easy access to sustainable markets, leading to their long-term growth.

5.6.3. Capacity building and training

Capacity building and training emerged as a sub-theme under governance support structures for agricultural co-operatives. Education, training and information are part of the cooperative principles developed by the ICA. As such, the DTI (2012) in South Africa prioritises the development and support of co-operatives through capacity building and training. A study by Shaw (2009) also linked education and training to the development of a co-operative voice, increased productivity and economic prosperity. When asked if they had received any form of training, and how that training or lack thereof has influenced youth participation in their agricultural co-operative, participants provided the following narratives:

“There’s the one training where we were taught how to sow potatoes, and how to add manure to the soil. You don’t add manure directly to the seedling as it would harm it, you put it on the side ... It has helped me really because I didn’t know that when you sow potatoes its different, and every vegetable is different. You have to dig a small trench for potatoes and then you sow it, but not at the centre of the trench, you sow it on the side by the heap of soil. So, when they grow, they will have plenty of soil. So, it’s different than corn. So, it really helped me because when I did it, I saw good results.” (Respondent 2)

“Yes, I’ve received training for vegetable processing, plant production, and bookkeeping. So, they taught us how to plan before planting, how to plant and what to plant depending on the season, and also to plant something that you’ll be able to sell. So, you have to look at the market and make sure that you supply what the market needs ... Yes, the training can really help us, but the problem is that we don’t have water. The way they taught us to plant, it involves water.” (Respondent 3)

“The training that I have attended was from Umgibe, and another training that I’ve attended was from SEDA, but it was mixed. The SEDA training was about how to apply for tenders, and they also

taught us poultry farming... The trainings will help a lot because there are so many things that I did not know. Like using money and budgeting, we use money carelessly but now I know how we are supposed to use money. For instance, if you are in a co-op, the things you do and buy must be written down and there must be a record to avoid any conflicts.” (Respondent 9)

All three respondents stated that the training received could help them. However, Respondent 3 stated that the training would not be useful if the water challenge persists. On the other hand, Respondent 9 listed some of the valued functioning and enhanced capabilities she has gained, such as budgeting and financial control skills. These findings resonate with a study by Hartley and Johnson (2014: 56) who demonstrate that co-operatives provide an ‘extended learning space’ that enable youth to shape their personal futures. The study further found that co-operative learning enabled some capabilities (Sen 1993) among the youth membership (Hartley and Johnson 2014).

There was one respondent who contradicted Respondents 2, 3 and 9 on their claims that the training was useful. This respondent stated the following:

“Yes, we’ve all received training. The Department of Agriculture provided us with training on bookkeeping and plant production, and we also got training on how to use chemicals, but that was provided by Beyer who provides us with the chemicals... In my own view, there was a lot of waste of time. Waste of time convincing a person not to plant in a certain way, and also to organise trainings for people, that to me were a waste of time. However, training is necessary, but you can’t train all the time. You just need to grab it and move on. So, that for me it was a waste of time.” (Respondent 6)

Respondent 6 acknowledged that her members received various training and that training is necessary. However, she argued that organising and conducting training was a waste of time, and that time could have been used in production. The response also suggested that there seem to be too much focus on training rather than production and marketing.

5.6.4. Markets and selling

Markets and selling of agricultural produce were at the core of the co-operative’s growth and survival. The DTI (2012) also prioritises the access to markets for emerging co-operatives in their 2012 – 2022 co-operative strategy. Tshabalala (2013) states that one of the significant challenges facing co-operatives is the absence of sustainable markets for their produce and services. As a result, rural co-operatives end up focusing on rural local markets which are often

inadequate and overflowed with mass-produced products from the urban economy (Philip 2003). Respondents were asked how their agricultural co-operative markets and sells their produce and the responses were as follows:

“We found the okra market from Umgibe who was providing us with training, and there were customers looking for people who can farm it and sell it to them. We decided to set aside 2 hectares for them, and immediately after finishing our training in June, then we will be able to begin.”
(Respondent 8)

“Lima has assisted us with finding a market at Spar. We also get a lot of support from the community. We sell some of our vegetables to school teachers in nearby schools, and we also sell to clinic patients. So, the market is there a bit, and its better now since Lima has found us a market at Spar.” (Respondent 3)

“On the other side, the government used to invite us to attend workshops on markets, and that led us into finding a market in Clairwood, there we managed to find people who can sell our products for us... Even though there were some challenges we discovered would arise, and we sent our produce once, we went to sell to the market to the Clairwood market the government had introduced us to, but what I discovered in that workshop was that we were seen as small business owners, as co-ops who were in their early stages. So, when they explained the process to us, we found out that there was a middle man. That was a person who would sell your products for you inside, and then pay you. Now in that market, you find out that you can bring your fresh produce, and the middle man from was from Apex. Now, when your produce is no longer fresh, it had to be thrown away, and that now was a loss on our side. Secondly, you have to pay that middle man, so at the end of the day there was no profit on our side. That’s one thing that I noticed, and even enquired about it at the workshop and asked why they don’t remove the middle man so that farmers can market and sell directly. So, what they said was that it was a must to have a middleman from Apex.”
(Respondent 4)

Respondents 3 and 8 stated that they had received some private support, while Respondent 4 stated that they received government support in terms of accessing markets to sell their produce. Respondent 3 also stated that her agricultural co-operative sells to the local markets such as schools and clinics. There were other respondents (Respondent 1 and 5) who also stated that they mostly sell their produce to local markets. This finding concurs with literature by Philip (2003) on emerging co-operatives’ access to local markers. Respondent 4 went further to express his dissatisfaction over the middle man who was located to his co-operative. This

middle man from Apex, who also had to be paid, seemed to be compelled upon co-operatives already struggling to survive.

5.7. Co-operative growth and sustainability

The study also sought to determine how agricultural co-operatives could contribute to youth employment creation and socio-economic development in the eThekweni region. Youth co-operative members were asked how their co-operatives benefit the youth in their communities, and to provide their views on what could be done to ensure sustainable growth for agricultural co-operatives. Various sub-themes emerged under co-operative growth and sustainability, which included: attracting youth into agriculture; co-operative youth benefits; employment creation.

5.7.1. Attracting youth into agriculture

Respondents were asked how, in their views, could agricultural co-operatives contribute to youth employment creation and socio-economic growth. Attracting youth into agriculture emerged as a sub-theme, and some participants provided the following narratives:

“I can encourage them by being an example where they can see the journey I’ve travelled and how successful our co-op has become. Right now, we can’t be that example, but we can as soon as we have begun farming. Right now, we have an okra order that we have to send. After June we have to start planting okra and we have to send the order in two months. So, young people have to see the journey I’ve travelled, then I can encourage them to start co-operatives.” (Respondent 9)

“It’s very important to encourage the youth to organise themselves and work together in agriculture. Maybe, discussions like these should not just take place in schools. There is a need for these discussions to encourage young people in agriculture to be preached in churches as well. These discussions of utilising land for agriculture must take place everywhere. We were made from the soil, we are fed by the soil, and at the end of the day, we will return back to the soil when dying days come upon us.” (Respondent 4)

“Probably the best way for now is to be successful, maybe that will draw them in, but if not then you need to think of new ways... um, or you need to pass on the knowledge and information of agriculture. Maybe start in schools for example, they could be more interested. Teach kids how to farm, teach kids the importance of farming, and that farming involves a lot of aspects from science to technology. So, teach them that it’s not all about picking up a hoe and working the land. There’s

a whole new meaning to farming these days, and you can do possibly any type of farming.”
(Respondent 7)

Respondents 4 and 7 stated that it was essential to encourage the youth into agriculture. Respondent 7 further stated that discussions to encourage young people should occur in all corners of society, especially discussions of utilising the land for agricultural purposes. Both Respondents 7 and 9 agreed that the best way to encourage young people was to set an example and become successful so they can witness that one can make a living in the agricultural sector. This finding resonated with a study by Tolamo (2014) which focused on youth perception of agriculture, and found that 100% of the participants agreed that agriculture is an option for making a living. These participants were exposed to agricultural activities occurring in their communities. By being successful, Respondent 7 believed that he could mobilise youth into agricultural activities, and also teach young people that there are other activities in agriculture rather than working the land.

5.7.2. Co-operative youth benefits

Respondents were asked how their agricultural co-operative benefits young people in their respective communities. This question formed an integral part of determining how agricultural co-operatives could become sustainable by attracting young people to participate. Several co-operative youth benefits were mentioned in response to the question, and respondents provided the following statements:

“For now, the youth doesn’t benefit much from our co-operative, except the orphaned youth which benefits. For now, we call them to come and fetch some vegetables and some chickens.”
(Respondent 1)

“For now, we were just teaching young people to start a nursery for seedlings, so we can buy them here locally instead of travelling to town to buy seedlings. What we currently do here is that if we have a yield of mealies or cabbages, we donate some to a local non-profit organisation which takes care of orphaned children. So, we provide them with some vegetables when we have a good yield. So, there is something that we do for young people.” (Respondent 3)

“There are young people that we ask from our community to come and learn from our farm. However, how can a person learn anything on an empty stomach? We are so willing to help people, but how can we do that when people are hungry, and how can we do that if a person won’t get anything at the end of the day. You must link agriculture together with benefits from the youth, so

that you can be able to attract them. You attract them by asking them to work and then providing them with a stipend, or they get something to eat, because they need to eat. People just need something because they work to feed their families and themselves, those are simple things. So, what we've done is... there's a patch on the other side, it's not yet complete though. We've demarcated that land for us to have an open classroom, and open a small nursery, and then I'll have a compost area and a sheltered over-shade cloth plantation and have a small tunnel. Just to show them different ways of farming such as open field, shaded area and tunnels. Just small things to have short lessons, because children can only absorb so much. So, we want to show them how to farm, and after the session we'll have a session of eating the food from the garden. So, you have to cook it and then eat, if you have access then take it home.” (Respondent 6)

Both Respondents 1 and 3 stated that the orphaned youth from their communities benefit through food donations contributed by their respective agricultural co-operatives. This finding resonated with the ICA (1995) concern for community principle, where co-operatives have become a successful drive against poverty and exclusion (Birchall 2004). Respondents 3 and 5 also stated that their agricultural co-operatives provide young people from their communities with the opportunity of establishing local nurseries where these co-operatives can purchase seedlings. Respondent 6's co-operative had even gone further to demarcate land where young people can learn how to farm and produce their vegetables. However, she also stated that young people would not be motivated to participate in agriculture if they are hungry. Therefore, providing some form of work and a stipend could help in alleviating hunger and hopefully attract young people to participate in agricultural activities.

5.7.3. Employment creation

Co-operatives are viewed as a vehicle for job creation and poverty reduction instead of individual entrepreneurship (Philip 2003). Hence, respondents were also asked how they think their agricultural co-operative could contribute to youth employment opportunities. Respondents stated the following in response to the question posed:

“You see, like I said before, if we can have our water problem fixed and we get water, we can be able to produce more vegetables. So, when we are at the gardens young people can assist by processing vegetables. You see, we process and make our own jam, beetroot and chillies. So, young people can assist in processing those things. That's how our co-op can create more jobs, especially if we get water and find the market. Young people can assist in chopping cabbages and butternuts, since most people now prefer buying vegetables that are already chopped.” (Respondent 2)

“I think it would help if young people can be trained in agriculture, and those young people can end up training other young people who wish to start agricultural co-ops. That can end up creating employment opportunities for the youth... We would allow those young people to join our co-op, because our aim is for the unemployed youth to be able to get employment. It’s hard to establish something without having experience, so they would be able to start their own co-ops in the future.” (Respondent 5)

“Our co-op can help a lot because we know a lot of young people who are not employed, and if we get a bigger and more orders, then we can be able to create jobs. Eh, our co-op can also contribute because when we start farming, we will need farm workers who will assist us. We will look for young people to work with and to teach how to farm.” (Respondent 8)

Respondent 2 stated that one of the ways her agricultural co-operative could create employment opportunities was through vegetable processing. However, because of the persisting lack of water in the area, her co-operative cannot produce enough vegetables. Therefore, processing employment opportunities remain elusive. The lack of basic services and access to markets, which also emerged as sub-themes, have an adverse effect on agricultural co-operatives’ ability to create employment opportunities for young people. Respondents 5 and 8, who both come from newly established wholly youth-owned agricultural co-operatives, stated that their co-operatives could help in absorbing unemployed youth and train them how to farm.

5.8. Conclusion

This chapter presented critical findings in the form of themes and sub-themes, which emerged through the thematic data analysis process that was adopted by the study. A demographic profile of all respondents was presented, and to ensure the respondents’ confidentiality is protected, the names have been omitted, and the respondents were coded for anonymity. Factors encouraging youth participation in agriculture featured surprising sub-themes such as a passion for agriculture. While factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives revealed that insecure land tenure remained a challenge for co-operatives in rural dual governance areas. Other factors such as access to information, access to funding and access to markets continue to affect youth participation and overall cooperative growth and development.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction

The main aim of this study was to determine the factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives located in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni, KwaZulu-Natal. The focus was on investigating how these factors, both positive and negative, influence young people's ability to establish or join agricultural co-operatives in their communities. This chapter discusses the research findings that emerged during the data analysis process. First, the chapter will discuss each finding and attempt to link such finding with reviewed literature and theoretical framework. Second, the chapter will discuss the realisation of the research objectives, which are listed in Chapter 1. This section examined whether the study's findings answered the research questions. Lastly, the chapter will provide a conclusion with a summary of the study and its findings.

6.2. Discussion of findings

6.2.1. Youth understanding of co-operatives

Youth understanding of co-operatives is a crucial element in formulating a path towards growth and sustainability. Young people need to understand what co-operatives are and how they operate. This finding could ensure that co-operatives established by young people remain autonomous and resilient against socio-economic vulnerabilities (ICA 1995; Scoones 1998). Also, with enough understanding of how co-operatives function, young people can create invented space of citizen participation (Miraftab 2004). Young people who participated in the study had a fair knowledge of what a co-operative was and provided definitions revolving around unity and the working together of community members. Some co-operative members also stated that co-operatives function through shared understanding and sharing of resources among farmers. This finding resonated with Cobia (1989) who defines agricultural production co-operatives as those that pool resources such as land and machinery and members farm and produce jointly.

Most respondents who participated in this study are unemployed and have low levels of education. Although most co-operative members did not know all values and principles of co-operatives as defined by the ICA (ICA 1995). There common understandings that might stem

from indigenous knowledge, such as the concepts of working together and caring for the community. One of the most mentioned co-operative principles from the respondents' narratives was the concern for community principle, and some respondents mentioned that their agricultural co-operatives not only benefit members but also benefits their communities. Although this finding resonated with the ICA (1995) co-operative principle of concern for community, there was also some element of Ubuntu, where co-operative members were not only concerned about themselves but ensured that their gains trickled down to the community. Co-operatives also pride themselves with their democratic member control principle (ICA 1995), which was also found as one of the principles mentioned by respondents. This principle of democracy seems to empower women in their participation in agricultural co-operatives, and also creates a path where women can make more meaningful and equitable contributions in rural economies through agriculture (Raney, et al. 2011).

Co-operatives can contribute towards the socio-economic upliftment of communities and also form part of local economic development (LED) strategies towards reducing unemployment and poverty (Philip 2003; Khumalo 2014). Respondents understood some socio-economic benefits that their agricultural co-operatives brought to communities. This finding was evident from the respondents' responses, where they stated that co-operatives benefit the community by providing a cheaper local market where community members can access. Also, co-operatives benefited society by creating employment opportunities for young people, thereby potentially reducing poverty. These findings pinpointed one of the benefits of co-operatives as their ability to contribute to local economic development (LED) and thereby providing jobs that could reduce. The finding on LED contribution resonated with a study by Khumalo (2014) who stated that co-operatives in South Africa are a crucial vehicle for LED, thereby improving the livelihoods of disadvantaged people. Meanwhile, the finding of job creation was in line with Philip (2003), who views co-operatives as drivers for job creation and poverty reduction. Karnani (2011) also stressed that generating employment is one of the major thrusts of poverty reduction.

6.2.2. Factors encouraging youth participation in agricultural co-operatives

The factors encouraging youth participation in agricultural co-operatives formed the core focus of my study. Hence, a great emphasis on the data analysis process resulted in the output of factors that revealed similar patterns across respondents. As a result, the cross-cutting factors that emerged were having a passion for agriculture, being unemployed, being self-employed,

and working together. South Africa faces a youth and agriculture problem (Swarts and Aliber 2013), whereby young people are perceived as not choosing agriculture as a profession or as a livelihood strategy (Mathivha 2012). What was surprising from this study was that some young people had a passion for agriculture, despite studies by Swarts and Aliber (2013) and Mathivha (2012) which stated otherwise. Some respondents had a genuine passion for agriculture, and that was one of the reasons why they participated in agricultural co-operatives in their communities. This finding resonated with a study by Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs (2019) who found that some young people across South Africa expressed an evident passion for agriculture over potential profits. Although these respondents agreed that some young people are lazy and are not interested in the labour-intensive agricultural industry.

Persistent youth unemployment has been one of the pressing socio-economic problems in South Africa due to a lack of networks and information for job opportunities, as well as financial resources and mobility to seek for work (Yù 2013). Currently, the youth aged between 16 to 35 has the highest concentration of unemployment as they account for 63% of the total number of unemployed persons in South Africa (Stats SA 2019). The study revealed that the persistent levels of unemployment in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni were a driver towards the youth forming or joining agricultural co-operatives. In this finding, being unemployed can be viewed as a functioning which represents parts of the state of a person. As a result, the capability of a person reflects the alternative functioning the person can achieve to improve the quality of life (Sen 1993). Therefore, having employment would be the alternative functioning, and respondents demonstrated their capability to create employment opportunities by forming agricultural co-operatives and were able to improve their quality of life. The promotion of co-operatives as drivers for job creation and poverty reduction (Philip 2003; DTI 2012) by the government has attracted impoverished young people to participate in co-operatives. However, these actions by the government might have critical policy implications as more young people will want to participate in co-operatives with a mentality that they will be instantly employed and start earning an income. Meanwhile, two respondents mentioned that most young members immediately left the co-operative when they realised that there was no income earned during the co-operative's infant stages. This revealed the lack of understanding some young people have regarding how co-operatives function.

Being self-employed was another factor that encouraged some respondents to establish agricultural co-operatives in their communities. In this finding, being self-employed was a

functioning that provided the corresponding capability of participating in agricultural co-operatives and become independent. When applying the capability approach framework which has been adopted by this study, being self-employed and being independent is a functioning relevant for human well-being, others including being happy and achieving self-respect (Sen 1993). The corresponding capability to achieve this valuable functioning was the mobilisation and utilisation of human capital by respondents to establish and participate in agricultural co-operatives. The finding was also in line with a study by Metelerkamp, Drimie and Biggs (2019), who found that some young people had entrepreneurial aspirations and wanted to start their businesses in the field of agriculture. Tshabalala (2013) also concurs that co-operatives were a viable option to encourage youth entrepreneurship and thereby alleviate poverty.

Working together encouraged youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Similar to the provided definitions of co-operatives, the idea of working together also attracted young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives. The idea of working together and building trust and relationships can be classified under social capital. Putnam (2000) identifies social capital as those social cohesion, social networks, norms and trust of civic engagement. Portes and Landolt (1996) define social capital as one's ability to create and grow voluntary associations. Hence, co-operatives can strengthen community networks by enhancing social cohesiveness and cooperative spirit (Kasabov 2016). The study found that working together was an influential factor which made them participate in agricultural co-operatives. This finding was in line with literature by Kay (2005), who emphasised that people work together with others and in organisations who share similar values, norms and a sense of belonging. Co-operatives can function well if members have a shared vision and a sense of belonging and commitment, and respondents were encouraged to participate in entities that promote cooperative spirit rather than individual entrepreneurship. That is why co-operatives can be viewed as invented spaces of participation (Miraftab 2004), where the collective action of the impoverished challenges the status quo. However, some challenges of working together were raised by some respondents. These included the challenge of working with people who have different ideas and trying to get them to agree on a shared vision. This challenge was found to have caused delays in executing plans of action for some youth co-operative members.

6.2.2. Factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives

Some hindering factors influenced youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Factors such as poorly defined and insecure land tenure, lack of basic services such as water, lack of

access to information, lack of funding, inadequate infrastructure and no equipment to carry out farming duties. Insecure land tenure was a hindering factor, as the land, most of these agricultural co-operatives are located in is under the jurisdiction of traditional authorities and the ITB. This means that the land is under communal use by citizens residing in those areas. Therefore, formal land tenure cannot be guaranteed, and land users can only obtain land lease agreements from the ITB as permission to use the land. Land acquisition processes are traditional and are informed by customary practices and driven through social networks (Mbatha and Mchunu 2016). Agricultural co-operatives had to obtain this lease agreement from the ITB to avoid any conflicts of land use with other community members. There was a case where a youth agricultural co-operative was stripped off their land by disgruntled community members, which led to a youth co-operative member being injured, and vegetable produce, including operating facilities, destroyed. Such insecure land tenure could lead to the inability of youth co-operative members to participate meaningfully and make decisions on the land in which they operate. As such, participation as a process of sharing decisions that affect one's life and the life of the community which one resides in (Hart 1997) cannot be realised. Agricultural co-operatives are at risk of being co-opted by structures that control land tenure in rural areas. As a result, the autonomy in the decision-making of which agricultural co-operatives can use land in rural areas is compromised.

Insecure land tenure also limited the growth and development of agricultural co-operatives located in dual governance areas of eThekweni. The study found that one agricultural co-operative struggled to obtain a loan as the land is under Ingonyama Trust, and this created challenges when applying for finance with banks. Banks do not recognise ITC leases as legal rights of land ownership and collateral and prefer the land to be privately owned with a title deed as a legal ownership document. This finding resonated with Qwabe (2014) who stated that land is the most widely accepted collateral in agricultural lending. Still, there are often problems with ownership and title rights, which makes formal financial institution lending to emerging co-operatives challenging. The inability for agricultural co-operatives to obtain finance from banks because they do not possess a title deed for the land they utilise for their agricultural activities may hinder growth, lead to the stagnation, and result in reduced participation of young people.

The rapid migration of people from urban areas to peri-urban and semi-rural areas of eThekweni has placed a strain on municipal service delivery. EThekweni Municipality (2017) stated that

the dual governance system in the municipality affects the delivery of service to areas under ITB. The affected services include water supply, sewage and electricity backlogs. These issues reflect the historical and current socio-economic and environmental factors underpinning spatial development in eThekweni (Sutherland and Lewis 2012). The study found that the lack of basic services, especially water, was a hindering factor that influenced youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Respondents reported that the lack of water presents a significant challenge which is impacting on their agricultural production outcomes. These impacts included the production of low-quality vegetables, and the inability to expand their vegetable gardens due to water shortages. This finding is in line with literature by Sutherland and Lewis (2012) who state that there are significant environmental constraints, such as a shortage of water in the city and the steep terrain; and fiscal constraints to pursue bulk infrastructure projects in semi-rural and peri-urban areas of eThekweni.

Lack of infrastructure and equipment was one of the factors hindering youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. The lack of infrastructure and equipment to carry out agricultural activities hinders the growth and development of co-operatives, and their ability to create employment opportunities. Lack of infrastructure, such as fencing, led to the invasion of animals and the destruction of vegetable produce in the gardens. Some respondents revealed that their agricultural co-operatives did not have the equipment to carry out their farming activities, and they did not have seeds to plant. These respondents had to borrow tools from their homes and had to contribute funds to purchase seeds. From these findings, it was clear that young people did not have any resources to pool together when embarking on a journey to establish agricultural co-operatives unlike in countries such as Uganda where the youth is encouraged to participate in agricultural co-operatives to have access to equipment (Flink, Vaast and Jacobs 2018). The lack of such resources to be pooled together could potentially lead to the failure of youth-owned agricultural co-operatives. Inadequate resources and not enough farming equipment may be caused by the lack of access to information regarding government grants and funding.

The provision of information for rural agricultural co-operatives, such as information on funding and training, plays an essential role in the growth and development of agricultural co-operatives. One of the DTI's objectives in its cooperative strategy is to strengthen co-operative sustainability, through the provision of access to information, access to markets, business development support services (DTI 2012). However, several youth co-operative members

stated that for them, it was not easy to access information regarding funding and training opportunities. Other respondents stated that they no longer receive any form of assistance from government entities. In comparison, there were a few respondents that received information on funding and training opportunities from third parties. These third parties mentioned were a mixture of government agents and private NGOs, such as Umgibe Farming and eThekweni Municipality's Agri Hub. There was a respondent who stated that the Internet has made it possible for co-operatives to access information regarding grants, funding and training.

Access to funding and government grants for agricultural co-operatives was a finding that hindered youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Funding opportunities for agricultural co-operatives are often limited, and co-operative members end up financing their own ventures by contributing start-up and expansion capital (Tshabalala 2013). The study found that access to finance for agricultural co-operatives had been a significant challenge. Most respondents stated that they currently did not receive any funding, with some stating that they had never received any form of funding, whether monetary or in-kind. Those few respondents who stated that they had received some funding also revealed that the funding received encouraged the participation of young people in their co-operative. This finding resonated with several studies (Tshabalala 2013; Khumalo 2014; Dyalvane 2015) which found that a lack of funding is a common challenge among agricultural co-operatives. The findings on access to finance for agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni further reveal their dependency on government funding. This finding differs from the findings in other African countries such as Kenya where co-operatives access funding through SACCOs, such as the Cooperative Bank of Kenya, rather than the government (Wanyama 2016). Access to finance, as a hindering factor for youth participation in agricultural co-operatives, highlights how underdeveloped the co-operative sector in South Africa is in comparison with other developing African countries such as Uganda and Kenya. The inexistence of SACCOs and Mutual Banks in South Africa, whose primary purpose would be to provide access to funding for the start-up and expansion of co-operatives, affects the participation of young people in agricultural co-operatives. Agricultural co-operatives in the rural eThekweni region still heavily relied on the government for access to information and funding opportunities.

6.2.3. Support structures for agricultural co-operatives

Since impoverished people establish co-operatives in the rural and semi-rural areas, they often rely on external support structures to implement their agricultural projects. Part of this study

was to examine existing governance support structures that influence youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. This would indicate the level of participation youth co-operative members enjoy; whether it is genuine or tokenistic (Hart, 1992). The results indicated that government support was significantly higher than private-sector support, and the most support services provided by both sectors were training and access to markets and selling. Most respondents stated that the support their agricultural co-operative received came from government departments and government agencies. The type of support received from government varied from financial assistance such as grants to in-kind assistance such as fencing and the provision of seeds. It was evident from the findings that most agricultural co-operatives who participated in this study heavily relied on external sources of funding. As stated by Cooke and Kothari (2001), participation in co-operatives who heavily rely on external support systems could potentially trigger a tyranny of decision-making, whereby those that are in control of the decisions are the ones who initiate and fund participation processes. In this case, both the government and private sector could instigate a tyranny of decision-making since they assist co-operatives. This was later evident when government assisted co-operatives in accessing markets.

Both government departments and private entities provided a linkage of markets where agricultural co-operatives could sell their fresh produce. Access to markets and the ability to sell produce were both at the core of co-operatives' growth and sustainability. The DTI (2012) also prioritises access to markets for emerging co-operative. In his study, Tshabalala (2013) found that one of the significant challenges facing co-operatives is the absence of sustainable markets for their produce and services. Some agricultural co-operatives who took part in this study mostly sell their produce to local markets. These local markets that were mentioned included schools, clinics, libraries, taxi ranks and social grant pay-points. This finding resonates with literature by Philip (2003) on emerging co-operatives' access to local markets. Other respondents revealed that their agricultural co-operatives received assistance from private sector entities to access markets where they sell their produce. At the same time, one respondent stated that they received assistance from the government to access markets. Although, their agricultural co-operative was allocated a middleman from a company called Apex who would sell the vegetable produce on their behalf. Also, this middleman had to be paid, and if the product reached a specified period without being sold to at the market, then it had to be discarded; leading to a loss of income for the co-operative. This finding linked back to the tyranny of decision-making argued by Cooke and Kothari (2001), where in this case

government makes access to markets decisions for agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni by compelling them to use a middleman appointed by the municipality which also required payment for services rendered.

The private sector plays a significant role in agricultural co-operative growth and development, primarily through the provision of specialised services and access to markets. Tshabalala (2013) also states that a favourable environment needs to be created for co-operatives to interact with the private sector to ensure easy access to sustainable markets, leading to their long-term growth. A few respondents revealed that they had received assistance from private entities such as Umgibe Farming, Lima and Beyer Chemicals. These private entities provide training and support and also linked agricultural co-operatives with available markets to sell their products. However, one respondent revealed that their agricultural co-operative had to pay for the training received from the private entity. This burden added more financial constraint on an already struggling agricultural co-operative that survives on members' financial contributions.

Capacity building and training were primary support services provided by governments and private sector companies. Education, training and information are part of the cooperative principles developed by the ICA. As such, the DTI (2012) in South Africa prioritises the development and support of co-operatives through capacity building and training. A study by Shaw (2009) also linked education and training to the development of a co-operative voice, increased productivity and economic prosperity for co-operatives. The study found that most respondents who received training were confident that these training had improved youth participation in their agricultural co-operatives, as those young people who were trained can carry out their roles and responsibilities successfully. For some young people, co-operatives provided a learning space for them to enhance their knowledge and skills. One respondent went further to list some of the valued functioning and enhanced capabilities she has gained, such as budgeting and financial control skills. This finding resonates with a study by Hartley and Johnson (2014:56) who demonstrated that co-operatives provide an "extended learning space" that enable youth to shape their futures. Also, co-operative learning enabled some capabilities (Sen 1993) among the youth membership (Hartley and Johnson 2014). These capabilities included being able to produce quality crops, being able to budget and perform financial controls, and being able to apply for tender opportunities.

6.2.4. Co-operative growth and sustainability

Co-operative growth and sustainability are pivotal elements as they lead to and facilitate the absorption and retention of unemployed young people in co-operatives. The study sought to understand how co-operatives could grow and be sustainable by asking respondents how these elements could be achieved. The study found that respondents had exciting views on how agricultural co-operatives could grow and become sustainable. These views included how young people could be attracted to agriculture, how youth co-operative benefits could be enhanced, and how agricultural co-operatives could create employment opportunities. Most respondents stated that for agricultural co-operatives to grow, it was essential to encourage and attract the youth into agriculture. Some respondents stated that the best way to attract the youth into agriculture was to ensure that the discussions to encourage young people to occur in all corners of society, this included discussions of utilising the land for agricultural purposes. Other respondents stated that the best way to encourage young people was to set an example and become successful so they can witness that one can make a living in the agricultural sector. This finding was in line with a study by Tolamo (2014), who found that 100% of the participants in his study agreed that agriculture is an option for making a living. These participants were exposed to agricultural activities occurring in their communities, which means that agricultural co-operatives in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni could attract young people into agriculture by setting good examples for the youth.

The study then sought to find out how young people benefit from agricultural co-operatives in the rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. The purpose was to determine how these benefits could be used to attract young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives. The study found that some agricultural co-operatives provide young people in their communities the opportunity to establish local nurseries where local agricultural co-operatives can purchase seedlings from, instead of travelling to town. This is achieved through the demarcation of land where young people can learn how to produce seedlings, farm and even produce their own vegetables. However, respondents from these agricultural co-operatives stated that it is a challenge to motivate and attract young people into agriculture if they are hungry and impoverished. The study also found that other agricultural co-operatives provide food donations for orphaned youth in their communities. This finding resonates with the ICA (1995) concern for community principle, where co-operatives have become a successful drive against poverty and exclusion (Birchall 2004). One respondent highlighted the importance of linking youth participation in agricultural co-operatives with tangible benefits. These benefits would

include providing temporary work and a stipend that could help in alleviating hunger and hopefully attract young people to participate in agricultural activities.

Co-operatives are often employed as community economic development strategies for their ability to provide employment opportunities. Philip (2003) also states that co-operatives are viewed as a vehicle for job creation and poverty reduction instead of individual entrepreneurship. Countries such as Kenya have fully embraced the power of co-operatives in driving economic growth through job creation. As a result, 63% of over 48 million people in Kenya participate in co-operatives, and 80% of the Kenyan population derive their income directly or indirectly from co-operative activities, while co-operatives in Kenya contribute 47% of the country's GDP (Wanyama 2016; Nyatichi 2015). The study found that one of the ways agricultural co-operatives could create employment opportunities was through vegetable processing. However, because of the persisting lack of water in the area, agricultural co-operatives could not produce enough quantity and quality vegetables. Thereby the processing employment opportunities that could be brought by small-scale agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni remains elusive. This result was a clear indication of persistent structural economic issues which support rapid commercialisation over subsistence farming, and the unpreparedness of the agricultural sector to absorb small-scale farmers in mainstream agricultural economic activities.

Large-scale commercial farming has become ineffective in addressing unemployment and inequality in rural communities. Government has failed to close the gap in the dual agrarian economy, which is divided between large scale commercial white farmers and small-scale subsistence black farmers (Aliber and Cousins 2013). The government's vision of reforming the agrarian economy by replacing large scale farms with smallholder farms, as envisaged in the RDP, has taken a back seat in the agrarian question. Hence, a revival of the co-operative sector would be an effective strategy to boost employment opportunities in South Africa. However, co-operatives employ a bottom-up approach to development and are more successful when established by communities rather than encouraged by the government. Also, co-operatives could have a minor chance of succeeding if the factors influencing youth participation, as found in this study, are not taken into consideration by policymakers. Therefore, any efforts to revive co-operatives should examine what factors encourage or hinder youth participation, so that a bottom-up approach to development is realised. Thus, the findings of this study carry significant policy implications that could influence policy on agricultural

co-operative growth and development in the rural areas of South Africa by focusing on the individual level of analysis. The prevailing agricultural practices and policies need to factor in such findings in the process of reforming the agricultural economy and reviving agricultural co-operatives.

6.3. Realisation of objectives

Objective 1: To determine the youth understanding of agricultural co-operatives and their functions.

This objective was realised because the study found that young people who participate in agricultural co-operatives did have some level of understanding of what co-operatives are and how they function. Co-operatives were understood as organisations where people work together to achieve a common goal. Co-operatives function through shared understanding and sharing of resources among farmers. This included the pooling sharing of resources such as land and machinery. The most common principle mentioned was the concern for the community. Agricultural co-operatives benefit not only members but also their communities. There was a contradiction in the adoption of open and voluntary membership principle. For some, membership is open and that every member has the right to vote. In contrast, others disagreed and stated that their co-operatives do not prescribe to voluntary and open membership. The socio-economic impacts and benefits of co-operatives were known, and the creation of employment and the reduction of poverty was expected socio-economic benefits that were mentioned.

Objective 2: To understand factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

This objective was realised as the study revealed factors that encourage and factors that hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives situated in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni. Having a genuine passion for agriculture encouraged young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives. Being unemployed was one of the factors that also encouraged young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives. The persistent levels of unemployment in rural and semi-rural areas of eThekweni were a driver towards the youth forming or joining agricultural co-operatives. Being self-employed was another factor that encouraged some respondents to establish agricultural co-operatives in their communities. Employing the capability approach framework, being self-employed and being independent is

a functioning relevant for human well-being. Working together was another factor that encouraged youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Similar to the provided definitions of co-operatives, the idea of working together also attracted young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives.

Insecure land tenure was a hindering factor, as the land, most of these agricultural co-operatives are located in is under the jurisdiction of traditional authorities and the ITB. Formal land tenure cannot be guaranteed, and land users can only obtain land lease agreements from the ITB as permission to use the land. The lack of basic services, especially water, was a hindering factor that influenced youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. The lack of water presented a significant challenge which was impacting on agricultural production outcomes. The lack of infrastructure and equipment to carry out agricultural activities impacts the growth and development of co-operatives, and their ability to create employment opportunities. Access to information and access to funding for agricultural co-operatives were other factors that hindered youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

Objective 3: To examine existing governance support structures for youth participation in agricultural co-operatives.

This objective was realised as government support, and private sector support was identified as governance support structures. Government support was significantly more than private-sector support, and the most support services provided by both sectors were training and access to markets and selling. These support services strengthened the governance of agricultural co-operatives. The type of government support also varied from financial assistance to in-kind assistance such as fencing and the provision of seeds. Private entities provided training and support and also linked agricultural co-operatives with available markets to sell their products. Capacity building and training was a significant support service provided by governments and private sector companies. Another crucial support service which was provided by both government departments and private sector entities was the linkage of agricultural co-operatives to markets where they can sell their produce. These governance support structures and services influenced the participation of young people in co-operatives.

Objective 4: To determine whether agricultural co-operatives can contribute to youth employment creation in eThekweni.

This objective was also realised because views on how agricultural co-operative could contribute to employment creation were noted. Attracting youth into agriculture could be another method to establish more agricultural co-operatives. Discussions on encouraging the youth into agriculture should occur in all corners of society; including discussions of utilising the land for agricultural purposes. The best way to encourage young people was to set an example and become successful so they can witness that one can make a living in the agricultural sector. Youth co-operative benefits varied as some agricultural co-operatives provide young people in their communities the opportunity to establish local nurseries. In contrast, other agricultural co-operatives provide food donations for orphaned youth in their communities. There was the importance of linking youth participation in agricultural co-operatives with tangible benefits. These benefits would include providing temporary work and a stipend that could help in alleviating hunger and hopefully attract young people to participate in agricultural activities. One of the ways agricultural co-operative could create employment opportunities was through vegetable processing.

6.4. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the results of the study, and one of the key findings were the factors that encouraged and hindered youth participation in agricultural co-operatives. Having a passion for agriculture was a surprising finding that encouraged young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives. Being unemployed and being self-employed were valued functioning that mobilised and utilised the human capital of young people to establish and participate in agricultural co-operatives. The idea of cooperation and working together seemed to attract the youth into participating in agricultural co-operatives. Factors that hindered youth participation were insecure land tenure, as land in the study location is under customary law and is not guaranteed. This insecure land tenure affects the ability of agricultural co-operatives to acquire finance from banks to grow and expand. The lack of basic services such as water and the lack of infrastructure and equipment to perform daily agricultural activities were other key factors that hinder the youth from effectively participating in agricultural co-operatives. Various government departments and private sector companies were existing governance support structures that influence the participation of young people in agricultural co-operatives. Government support included training, monetary and in-kind funding such as fencing, manure

and seeds. Private sector support services included training and linkages to markets where co-operatives can sell their produce. These support services provided by both government and the private sector strengthened the governance of agricultural co-operatives. Views on how agricultural co-operatives could create employment and absorb the unemployed youth included attracting young people into agriculture. This included setting an example where young people can witness that they can make a living through agriculture.

The findings of this study carry significant policy implications that could influence agriculture and youth policies on youth agricultural co-operative growth and development in the rural areas of South Africa. Agrarian policies and practices should evolve to accommodate youth small-scale farming and absorb unemployed young people who develop a passion for co-operative agriculture. This passion for agriculture, together with a valued functioning of being self-employed in the sector, need to be nurtured and employed as a strategy to attract more youth in agriculture. For the agricultural sector to be all-inclusive of black youth-owned small-scale farmers, factors such as insecure land ownership, particularly in rural areas where black women and youth are still marginalised by both traditional patriarchal leadership and governance structures, need to be addressed to ensure co-operatives retain their autonomous nature. Young people also need to be conscientious on the importance of land use for production, as both a sustainable livelihood strategy and method of participating in the mainstream economy. The significance of this study is to determine what drives or discourages young people from establishing and participating in agricultural co-operatives by analysing factors deriving from individual capabilities and external forces. Rather than focusing on why co-operatives have failed over the years, this study tackles the root problems young black individuals face in their participation in a mostly unreformed agricultural sector, it also highlights why these factors are crucial in reviving and sustaining the agricultural co-operative sector.

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Appendix A: Ethical clearance certificate



1 October 2018

Mr SPS Mduli 214579158

School of Built Environment and Development Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Mduli

Protocol reference number: HSS/1556/018M

Project title: The factors influencing youth participation in agricultural co-operatives : Evidence from the semi-rural areas of eThekweni

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 4 September 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Professor Shemuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Dr Mvuselele Ngcoya

cc. Academic Leader Research: Professor Oliver Mtshali

cc. School Administrator: Ms A Msomi

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Appendix B: Gatekeepers letter



13 August 2018

To whom it may concern

Mr. Siphephelo Freedom Siyabonga Mdluli, a Masters student in the School of Built Environment and Development Studies formally requests permission to interview staff in your department, agricultural co-operatives in eThekweni Municipality, and use the data collected on agricultural co-operatives and data produced by your department. He would like to use this data for his Masters dissertation entitled: "The role of youth agricultural co-operatives in employment creation and socio-economic development in the peri-urban and semi-rural areas of eThekweni, KwaZulu-Natal". The dissertation will acknowledge the KZN Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (KZN DARD) and the will be shared with KZN DARD if requested.

Thank you and Kind regards

Dr. Mvuselelo Ngcoya
Supervisor.
School of Built Environment and Development Studies
Email: Ngcoyam2@ukzn.ac.za
Tel number: 031 2602917

Permission to use KZN DARD data Granted by:

Name: *Thabisa*

Signature: *[Signature]*

Date: *13/08/2018*



KZN Department of Agriculture and Rural Development – eThekweni Region

Appendix C: Consent form

Appendix 2: Informed consent

Incwadi yesivulelwano socwaningo

Igama lami ngingu **Siphephelo Siyabonga Mdluli**, ngingumfundi waseNyuvesi yaKwaZulu-Natali (inombolo yokuba umfundi ithi: **214579158**). Ngenza ucwaningo oluqondene nama co-operatives ezokulima eThekwini kanye neqhaza alidlalayo ukwakha imisebenzi yabantu abasha nokuthuthukisa umphakathi.

Ngiyabonga ukuthi uvume ukuba yingxenye yalolu cwaningo. Imibuzo izoba ingxoxo nje esikhundleni sokuba kube imibuzo ebhalwe phansi. Inhloso yemibuzo ukuthi kube nengxoxo phakathi kwethu, ngizocela ukhululeke ukuzwakalisa imibono yakho ngokuphelele. Imibuzo izothatha isikhathi esingangamaminithi angamashumi amathathu (30). Ngicela imvume yokuba ngiqophe inkulumo yethu. Engikutholayo kulolu daba esikhuluma ngalo ngizokusebenzisa ukubhala umbiko ofeza izinjongo zezifundo zami.

Lolu cwaningo lusingethwe ngu**Dokotela uMvuselelo Ngcoya** ngaphansi kwesikole seBuilt Environment and Development Studies eNyuvesi yaKwaZulu-Natali lapho ngifunda khona. Yimi ozobe enza ucwaningo, uma unemibuzo noma kukhona ofisa ukukhala ngakho ungathinta **uDokotela Ngcoya** kuleli kheli: Ngcoyam2@ukzn.ac.za. Inombolo yocingo: 031 260 2917. Noma ungathintana nehhovisi lakwa **HSSREC Research Office**: Ms. P. Ximba. Tel: [+27312603587](tel:+27312603587)/ximbap@ukzn.ac.za.

Ngaphambi kokuba siqale ngithanda ukugcizelela ukuthi ukuvuma kwakho ukuba ingxenye yocwaningo kukuwena. Esikukhulumayo kuphakathi kwethu, igama neminingwane yakho ngeke kudalulwe uma ungafisi. Ayikho inkokhelo noma ingozi ekubeni ingxenye yalolu phenyo. Ungahoxa noma inini futhi uvumelekile ukungaphenduli eminye yemibuzo uma ungakhululekile. Ungabuza noma imiphi imibuzo noma inani uma kukhona okungakhanyi. Uma weneliswa tile mibandela, ngicela usayine isivumelwano ngezansi.

Mina(igama) ngiyakuqinikisekisa ukuthi ngiyifundile futhi ngayiqondisisa kahle imibandela ethulwa ngu_____ mayelana nocwaningo lwakhe. Nginalo ithuba lokubuza imibuzo futhi ngiyagculiseka ngezimpendulo ezibekiwe. Ngiyavuma ukuthi ingxoxo yethu iqoshwe.

Ngiyaliqonda ilungelo lame lokuthi ngingahoxa noma yinini.
Ngiyaqonda ukuthi awukho umnikelo engizowuthola kulolu cwaningo
Ngineminyaka engaphezulu kuka-18 futhi ngivumelekile
Ukuzibandakanya kulolu cwaningo
Ngiyavuma ukuzibandakanya kulolu cwaningo
Ngiyavuma ukuba inkulumo iqoshwe

Igama _____
Isiginesha _____
Usuku _____

Appendix D: Interview guide

Appendix C

SECTION A: Interview Guide – Agricultural Co-operative Respondents

Name of Agricultural Co-operative: _____

Number of Members: _____

Location: _____

1) Demographic Information:

1.1. Name: _____

1.2. Age: _____

1.3. Gender: _____

1.4. Employment status: _____

1.5. Level of education: _____

2) What are young peoples' understanding of an agricultural co-operative and how it functions?

2.1. In your view, what is a co-operative and how does a co-operative function?

2.2. What knowledge do you have on the values and principles of co-operatives?

2.3. How do these values and principles apply to your co-operative?

2.4. In your view, what are some of the social and economic benefits of a co-operative?

3) What are the factors that influence the youth into participating in agricultural co-operatives?

3.1. What influenced you to establish or join an agricultural co-operative?

3.2. What have been the barriers encountered in participating in an agricultural co-operative?

3.3. How has your participation affected your agricultural co-operative?

3.4. How could you encourage other young people to participate in agricultural co-operatives?

4) How do the existing governance structures support or hinder youth participation in agricultural co-operatives?

4.1. What is the main crop or produce of your agricultural co-operative?

4.2. How do you market and sell your agricultural produce?

- 4.3. How accessible is the information regarding training, grants or funding for co-operatives?
- 4.4. Has your agricultural co-operative received any form of financial or in-kind assistance?
- 4.5. How has this form of assistance affected your participation in the agricultural co-operative?
- 4.6. What capacity building and skills training have you and any of your co-op members received?
- 4.7. How have any of the capacity building or skills training affected your participation in the agricultural co-operative?
- 4.8. What are some of the successes achieved by your agricultural co-operative?
- 4.9. What are some of the challenges faced by your agricultural co-operative?
- 4.10. In your view, how do you think these challenges could be addressed?

5) How can agricultural co-operatives contribute to youth employment creation and socio-economic growth in eThekweni?

- 5.4. How can your agricultural co-operatives contribute to the creation of youth employment opportunities?
- 5.5. How does the youth in your community benefit from your agricultural co-operative?
- 5.6. What could be done to ensure the growth and sustainability of your agricultural co-operative?